

*Qd as the Mills
& boring as the machine*
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Art. I.—GROWTH, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

(Concluded from November number.)

It was through Mr. Jackson's exertions that the Boston and Lowell railroad was undertaken and completed. It was opened for travel in 1835, and soon justified the wisdom of his anticipations. Afterwards, on the death of Mr. Booth, he had the immediate charge of the locks and canal company. During the last few years of his life, he was treasurer and agent to the Great Falls Manufacturing Company, at Somersworth, which owes its success mainly to his able management. His labors and responsibilities were severe, and a gradual prostration of his physical system admonished him that the time was drawing near when his connection with early pursuits must cease. He died at his residence in Beverly, the 12th of September, 1847, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. The news of his death was received as a public calamity.

During the period above mentioned, whilst manufactures were being firmly established in New-England, they were rapidly spreading in other sections of the Union. My limits will only allow me to refer to the earliest establishments in our own State. The first cotton factory in New-York was built by Doctor Capron, in Oneida county, about the year 1809. Then followed the mills of Hudson, Columbia county, built by Mr. Jenkins; then those of Pleasant-Valley, Dutchess county, and the Matteawan mills in 1814; about the same time several mills were erected in Orange county, one at Ramapo, Rockland county, by the Messrs. Pierson; also one at Schaghticoke. The county of Oneida has probably more capital employed in this branch of business than any other in this State. The New-York Mills, in that county, under the management of the Messrs. Wolcotts

enjoy a justly distinguished reputation for the excellence of their goods. These gentlemen are entitled to distinguished credit for their successful efforts to improve and perfect the cotton manufacture. Many other factories have also been erected in other parts of the State. But the capital invested in this branch of industry is much less in New-York than in some of the smallest New-England States. The manufacture has also spread in Pennsylvania and Maryland, some of the Western, and many of the Southern States; among the latter Georgia takes the lead.

Calico-printing was commenced in this country the latter part of the eighteenth century. As early as 1790, Herman Vandausen, a German, settled in East Greenwich, R. I., and commenced block-printing by hand. The cloths printed by him were mostly of domestic manufacture. He, however, soon gave up the business as unprofitable. About this time also, many cloths were imported from India, and printed in Providence, in the same manner, by foreign workmen who had come to reside there.

Zachariah Allen, ancestor of the present distinguished manufacturers and calico printers of that name, in Rhode Island, and who was then largely engaged in the East India trade, was among the first who had India cloths printed in this country. Block-printing was also commenced very early in Philadelphia, by an Englishman of the name of Thorpe. Somewhere between 1820 and 1824, Mr. John Thorpe, a nephew of the above named gentleman, built an establishment for the firm of Crocker and Richmond, at Taunton, Mass. Their first printing was done by hand.

The first cylinder machine for printing calicoes, I believe, was put in operation at this place. The model of this machine, together with some engraved copper cylinders, was imported from England, in 1825, by Wm. J. Breed, now living in Providence, R. I. At the time he made this importation, all such exports were strictly prohibited by the English government, and it was very difficult even for skilful workmen to get away. The law was however soon altered, when the business made rapid progress. Andrew Robeson, Esq., of New Bedford, Mass., was one of the pioneers in this business, and still has, in possession of the family, the first calico-printing machine made in this country. The greatest improvements in this business have been brought from abroad. A machine, invented by R. L. Hawes, of Worcester, Mass., has, however, just been completed for a distinguished printer in Rhode Island, for printing twelve colors by one operation, *which has never before been attempted in the world.* We are not informed of the exact amount of calicoes printed in the United States at present; but it is very large, and has nearly superseded foreign importations. Some idea of its increase may

be formed from the fact, that about 1826 the Merrimack works at Lowell, Mass., which then produced less than one thousand pieces per week, now turn out about ten thousand and five hundred pieces each week. There are some other large establishments in Massachusetts and several in Rhode Island, whose production is nearly or quite equal to this. In New-York, New-Jersey, and Pennsylvania, there are also other calico-printing establishments, where the art is carried to a very high degree of perfection.

We will likewise take occasion in this place to notice briefly, a few of the men whose names will be honored when the history of the cotton manufactures of the United States shall be written.

Mr. Paul Moody, beforementioned, was born in Newbury, Mass., in 1777, and before the manufacturing enterprise of Messrs. Lowell and Jackson, was in partnership in the manufacturing business with Mr. Ezra Worthen. In 1814, he removed to Waltham, and rendered the most valuable services in starting the first mill at that place; he supplied an important movement in the power loom of Messrs. Lowell and Jackson, to which that machine owed its successful operation. He invented what is called the dead spindle, which was introduced at Waltham, and is now used in many mills in Lowell. The Rhode Island-machinery employ the "live spindle," copied from the English. He invented what is called the "filling frame," which is still in use in Waltham and Lowell. He invented a "governor" to regulate the speed of their wheels, and the first one he made was in successful operation until 1832. With the assistance of Mr. Lowell, he invented the "double speeder," a piece of machinery the celebrated Dr. Bowditch declared, "required for its construction the greatest mathematical power of any piece of mechanism with which he was acquainted." Besides the double speeder, the Waltham company patented a "spinning frame," dressing frame, and "warper," all the invention of Mr. Moody. It is an evidence of the great value attached to the services of this gentleman, that when, in 1823, he went to Lowell, taking with him models and mechanics from Waltham, the company at Lowell paid the Waltham company as a remuneration, one hundred thousand dollars. He was at the head of the machine shop in Lowell, until the time of his death, July 7th, 1831.

To Mr. Kirk Boot, Lowell was as much indebted for its success as to any other individual. He was there when the first mill was erected, superintending the interest of the Merrimack Company; and was appointed to the agency of the locks and canals, upon the reorganization of that company in 1825. As a man of prompt business habits, of great power to manage men, and to grasp and master extensive and complicated details, rarely has he been excelled. At the same time, by his high sense of honor,

his lofty integrity, his quick perception and decided practice of what was right, he had always a hold upon the respect and affections of those he employed. He devoted his services to the company until his death, which took place the 11th of April, 1837.

Mr. W. B. Leonard, of New-York, who was for a long time connected with the Matteawan Company, has rendered valuable services to the cause of manufactures, both by importing and improving machinery. The loom introduced at Waltham, heretofore noticed, in consequence of being confined to a certain slow speed, did not go into general use, and was succeeded by what is known as the Scotch loom, introduced at Providence, R. I., from abroad, by Mr. Gilmour. It remained as introduced till 1827, when important mechanical improvements were made by Mr. Leonard, by which the texture of the cloth was much improved. This loom, as improved, was first introduced into the New-York mills, and continues in use to the present day. The next improvement was a spreading and lapping machine, introduced from England, by Mr. Leonard, then, an improvement on the "railway drawing head," a very valuable one, patented by him in 1833.

The "self-acting mule" came into use in England and Scotland about the time the American manufacturers were turning their attention to making printing cloths. Under the laws of England, it could not be exported; and, as our laws then were, a foreigner could not take out a patent in this country. Many enterprising men went to England for the purpose of bringing out models of this machine; they, however, did not succeed. But Mr. W. A. Leonard went out, *and succeeded*, at great hazard to himself, in bringing it to this country. The model was made of the exact size to fill a travelling trunk, and smuggled into the cabin of the vessel whilst Mr. Leonard and the captain (by previous agreement) were fighting, for the amusement of the custom-house officers. During the time they were obtaining the model, Mr. W. B. Leonard was at Washington procuring a special law to secure the right of the machine to the inventor. He had prevailed on the committee to make a favorable report; but the final passage of the bill was in much doubt, when an honorable member of the house, from Kentucky, determined that every thing should be done that could possibly benefit his constituents, strongly advocated the passage of the bill, on the ground that his State and the whole West were as much interested in the improvement of the breed of mules as the North; and he declared, as his "firm conviction, that Kentucky could raise more and better mules than any other section of the country." The bill became a law, and the mules were readily bought by the Eastern manufacturers; but we are not aware that the

breed of mules in Kentucky has been materially improved by the operation!

One of the most ingenious machines ever invented, was produced by Amos Whittemore, Esq., of Cambridge, Mass., in 1797, for making cards, which, by a simple operation, bends, cuts, and sticks the card-teeth with a cheapness, celerity and perfection before supposed impossible. This machine has been patented abroad, and is the only one ever invented that approximates at all to the desired result.

Among the many artists and mechanics to whom this important manufacture is indebted for its present highly improved condition, Mr. William Mason, of Taunton, Mass., stands pre-eminent. This gentleman is a native of Mystic, Conn., where he was born in 1808. At the age of thirteen, he commenced working in a cotton factory. At seventeen, he went into a machine shop, where he at once displayed great mechanical genius and powers of invention. He soon perfected an improvement in the power loom for weaving diapers and cloths of that description. The frame known as the "Ring Spinner," invented by John Thorpe, and improved upon by several others, was, nevertheless, inefficient, until perfected by Mr. Mason. He saw the advantages of the principle upon which it was intended to operate, and by his inventive genius supplied the defects in its construction, and rendered it a very important and valuable machine, which has now gone into extensive use among manufacturers. But the great invention on which his fame principally rests, is his "Self-acting Rule." The attention of the best mechanics in England and America had long been turned to this invention, and several different machines of this kind had been produced in England. As early as 1833, Mr. Mason gave his mind to it; and after laborious, patient and persevering application, he succeeded in bringing the machine to operate, and about 1839 took out his first patent. About 1843, he took out a second patent for improvements therein, and the machine began to be appreciated and adopted by manufacturers. He has continued to improve upon it, and it is now, probably, as perfect a spinning machine as there is in the world. We have seen more than 33,000 spindles, constructed upon Mr. Mason's principle, operating in one room at the same time, producing the most beautiful yarn, and with such admirable facility and precision, as to suggest the idea "of reason and intelligence in the machines themselves." This gentleman, whose rare and unobtrusive modesty is exceeded only by his skill and untiring industry, has made and put in operation upon his principle in the United States, about 600,000 spindles. His superior artistic taste has contributed more to the beauty and just proportion of form of the various machines to which his attention has been devoted, than

that of any other artisan. In addition to cotton machinery, he is now engaged in the manufacture of *locomotive engines*; and should he display the same taste and skill in their construction which he has developed in the production of other machinery, the *iron horse* of the United States will exceed in symmetrical elegance and beauty, that of any other country.

The "Danforth Frame," (or, "Cap Spinner,") was invented by Mr. Charles Danforth, a native of Bristol county, Massachusetts, and a descendant of one of the old pilgrim families of that commonwealth. He commenced work as a throstle piecer in a cotton factory, as early as 1811, at the age of fourteen years, and continued to be employed in operating cotton machinery in its various departments in different establishments in his native State until 1821, when he removed to the State of New-York, and was employed about four years by the Matteawan Company, at Fishkill. In 1825, he removed to Ramapo, Rockland county, New-York, where he was employed as superintendent of a small cotton mill, and was acting in that capacity in 1828, when he made this discovery. The superiority of this machine consists in its rapid production of yarn, and it is said that a lower quality of stock can be used to advantage, and at the same time a good quality of yarn produced. The usual speed of the bobbin is 8,000 revolutions per minute, and the product eight hanks per spindle per day of number twenty, or in that proportion for other numbers. The ingenious inventor secured a patent in England, in 1830, where he put in operation some 15,000 spindles on his plan, and realized a handsome sum for his patent rights. The machine is mentioned with commendation by some of the ablest English writers on mechanics, under the name of the "American throstle." Mr. Danforth has put about 200,000 spindles in operation in this country, on his principle; and we are happy to say of him what cannot be said of all inventors, he has realized a handsome fortune by the fruits of his industry and ingenuity. He is still engaged in business in Paterson, New-Jersey.

About the year 1823, Mr. George Danforth, of Taunton, Mass., brother of the inventor of the "Cap Spinner," invented an important machine called the counter-twist speeder, but generally known as the "Taunton speeder." The double speeder, invented at Waltham, by Messrs. Lowell and Moody, was the only one in use in this country, and was so expensive, as to bear with great severity upon manufacturers of small means. The price of the Waltham speeder, with twenty spindles, was \$2,400. The counter-twist speeder, invented by Mr. Danforth, was sold for \$350, and could do more work than the Waltham machine. This invention, with various modifications, but essentially on Danforth's principle, has gone largely into use in this country and

Great Britain. Mr. Dyer, a native of Rhode Island, took out to England Whitemore's card machine, and for many years monopolized the manufacture of card clothing in England. Mr. Danforth's counter-twist speeder was also placed in his hands, and from these two American inventions he has realized a princely fortune.

Great difficulty had been experienced from the want of a proper machine to prepare the cotton for the cards. A lapping and spreading machine had been introduced from England, by Mr. Leonard; but this machine was not satisfactory. Some other improvements had also been made by others, but they were inefficient. About 1831, Mr. John C. Whitin, of Whitinsville, Mass., seeing the great necessity of a machine for this purpose, turned his attention to the invention of one. After spending about one year in patient investigation, he succeeded in inventing a machine known as "Whitin's Picker and Lapper," which has received the decided approval of manufacturers, and gone into extensive use. He took out letters patent for it, 20th July, 1832.

Before the invention of any machine of this kind, cotton had to be picked by hand, at an expense of about six cents per pound, and the work, even at this price, was imperfectly done. With Mr. Whitin's machine, it can be picked, lapped and prepared for the cards for about one mill per pound. It is unquestionably the best machine for the purpose intended, that has ever been produced. Mr. Whitin, in company with his brothers, under the firm of Paul Whitin & Sons, have a large machine-shop and cotton factory at Whitinsville, Mass., and are justly known as business men of great enterprise, unblemished integrity, accomplished machinists, and superior manufacturers.

Among the individuals who by their personal exertions have contributed most largely to the increase of the cotton manufactures of the United States, is the Hon. Charles T. James, of Rhode Island. Although not claiming to be an inventor, he has displayed great skill and tact in bringing out and combining the inventions of others, and has been the great advocate of the application of steam power as a motor for manufacturing purposes. Mr. James commenced learning to make machines in 1826. By the year 1830, he had become thoroughly and practically conversant with all kinds of cotton machinery then in this country, and had built more or less of all kinds of it with his own hands. In 1830-31, he started a cotton mill at Thompson, Conn., and in 1831-32 built the machinery for a mill to spin and weave No. 60, the finest work then ever attempted in the United States. In 1833, rebuilt the Kennedy mills, so called, at Central Falls, near Pawtucket, R. I. In 1834, commenced overhauling the Providence steam-mill for Samuel Slater, Esq. Up

to this time Mr. James was but little acquainted with steam power. He continued in this mill for some time, and made many valuable improvements in the manufacture of fine cottons, and also in the steam engine.

In 1837 and '38, built what is known as the Bartlett mill, No. 1, at Newburyport; in 1840 and '41, erected Bartlett mill, No. 2, at the same place.

In 1843 and '44, built the James mill, at Newburyport, and the Penn mill, at Pittsburg. In 1844, '45, '46, and '47, built the Globe mill, at Newburyport, Conestogo mill, No. 1, at Lancaster, Penn., and the Naumkeag mills, at Salem, Mass. The latter is one of the largest mills, as a whole, in the United States, and contains over 33,000 spindles. During the last-named period, three other mills were erected under the direction of Mr. James; one in Maine, one in Massachusetts, and the other in Rhode Island. In 1847, '48, '49 and '50, he erected the Charleston cotton mill, Charleston, S. C.; two mills at Fitchville, Conn.; one at Rockport, Mass.; two more at Lancaster, Penn., for the Conestogo Company; one at Harrisburg, Penn.; one at Reading, Penn.; one at Sag Harbor, L. I.; one at Cannelton, Ind.; and reconstructed two others at Gloucester, N. J.

In 1851, he erected the Atlantic muslin de laine mill, at Olneyville, near Providence, R. I. This mill was commenced in January, 1851, and is now in full operation.

The whole number of mills planned and erected by Mr. James since he commenced operations, is something over thirty, containing in the aggregate nearly 300,000 spindles, and between 7,000 and 8,000 looms. We are informed that the value of the aggregate product of all the mills built or reconstructed by him, is about \$8,000,000 per annum. In 1851, Mr. James was elected a member of the United States Senate by his native State, and is at the present time a member of that august body.

About the year 1842, Mr. E. B. Bigelow, of Massachusetts, made an important invention for a power loom for weaving ginghams, and other colored goods. In 1844, a project for weaving checks and ginghams was started; it found immediate favor in Boston, and the stock was readily subscribed. A location was fixed upon, on an unoccupied fall of the Nashua river, at Lancaster. The real estate was purchased, the work was commenced, and prosecuted with all possible dispatch. The cost of the mill was \$802,284 16, and is producing about 4,500,000 yards of ginghams per annum of a quality and cost which has nearly driven all similar foreign goods out of the American market. Although the cost of the mill was thought to be high, it had paid a profit up to 1851 of \$102,000. Mr. Bigelow has also invented several other valuable and important machines, among which is a power-loom for weaving coach lace, and one

for weaving Brussels and tapestry carpets. These inventions show high mechanical genius, and place him in the front rank of American inventors.

There are also many other meritorious men who, by their inventions and improvements, and skill as superintendents and overseers of factories, deserve special commendation. There has been a series of continual inventions and improvements in machines since they were introduced into this country. A bare enumeration of them would occupy too much time on this occasion. The great capitalists and merchants of Boston and other cities and towns in New-England, with clear-sighted and far-seeing sagacity, early discovered the great advantages that would accrue from the introduction of this branch of industry, and lent their powerful aid to its support.

In speaking of labor-saving machinery, there is one thing that is generally lost sight of, and that is, the great merit there has been displayed in inventing the tools which are used to make the machinery with. A visit to a machine shop, where the machines are made, is quite as interesting, as to the factory where they are used. In this department, the Americans stand pre-eminent.

In a report drawn up by the late P. T. Jackson, whom we have previously mentioned, it is stated, that prior to the passage of the act of 1816, there were 11,000,000 lbs. of cotton consumed per annum. There are no data to be relied upon for continuous quantities spun between 1816 and 1825-26. Since that time, returns have been annually made. In 1826 and 1827, the quantity spun in the United States, was 103,483 bales, estimated at 330 lbs. each, net of tare, equal to 34,149,390 lbs. From 1828 to 1830, there were embarrassments among the manufacturers and their customers; consequently the consumption was less than might otherwise have been expected, being 43,646,640 lbs. or 126,512 bales of 345 lbs. each; in 1832 and 1833, the quantity reached 194,412 bales of 360 lbs. each; in 1835-36, it was 236,733 bales; in 1837-38, 246,063 bales; in 1839-40, 295,193 bales. In 1841-42, there was great manufacturing and mercantile distress, and consumption fell off to 267,850 bales. In 1842-43, it rose to 325,129 bales. In 1844-45, the amount was 389,006 bales. In the above statement, the quantity manufactured refers to such purchases as are made by our manufacturers from bales brought to exporting ports. But there is a further quantity taken from plantations in the interior to mills in the Western and Southern States, which must be added to the 389,006 bales. It is estimated at 41,000 bales, making 430,006 bales, of 410 lbs. each, equal to 176,302,460 lbs. In 1845-46, 176,800,000 lbs. This is an increase from 11,000,000 lbs. in 1816 to 1845-46, of more than sixteenfold in twenty-nine years.

10 GROWTH, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

In 1847-48, we took 531,772 bales from the shipping ports, and by an estimate 75,000 from the plantations to the Southern and Western mills, making 606,770 bales of 420 lbs. net of tare, equal to 254,843,400 lbs. Here is an augmentation of about forty-five per cent. in manufactures, in three years. The result of this rapid increase was an over production of goods, consequent low prices, and serious loss to the manufacturers.

Since 1847-48, the consumption of cotton has been less than in some previous years, owing to the failure of some concerns and the short working of others. In 1849-50, it was 595,269 bales. In 1850-51, in consequence of the very general depression in the business, and the high price which cotton obtained, the quantity consumed did not probably much exceed 495,000 bales.

Prior to 1826, there was no separate record kept of the value of cotton goods exported, but it must have been quite small up to that time. Since then the records kept by the treasury department show the declared value of cotton manufactures exported from the United States, to be as follows:

1826,.....	\$1,138,125	1839,.....	\$2,975,033
1827,.....	1,169,414	1840,.....	3,549,607
1828,.....	1,010,232	1841,.....	3,122,546
1829,.....	1,259,457	1842,.....	2,970,690
1830,.....	1,318,193	1843,*.....	3,223,550
1831,.....	1,126,313	1844,†.....	2,898,780
1832,.....	1,229,574	1845,.....	4,327,928
1833,.....	2,532,517	1846,.....	3,545,481
1834,.....	2,085,994	1847,.....	4,082,523
1835,.....	2,858,681	1848,.....	5,718,205
1836,.....	2,255,734	1849,.....	4,933,129
1837,.....	2,831,473	1850,.....	4,734,424
1838,.....	3,758,755	1851,.....	7,241,205

By this table, we learn that the whole declared value of the exports of the manufactures of cotton from the United States, from 1826 to 1851, inclusive, amounts to *seventy-seven millions, eight hundred and eighty-seven thousand, five hundred and fifty-three dollars, (\$77,887,553.)*

By the census returns of 1850, the amount of capital invested in the different States, with various other interesting statistics (some of which, however, we do not think are correct) in relation to the cotton manufacture, were as follows:

* Nine months to 30th June.

† Year ending 30th June.

AMOUNT OF CAPITAL INVESTED.

11

Amount of Capital invested in the COTTON MANUFACTURE in the United States, and value of the Entire Product, &c., &c.
as per the Census of 1850.

State.	Capital invested.	Bales cotton.	Tons coal.	Value of all raw material.	No. hands employed.		Entire wages per month.		Average wages per month.		Value of entire product.	Yards sheeting, &c., &c.	Sundries.
					Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Maine,	\$3,399,700	31,531	2,921	\$1,573,110	780	2,959	\$52,905	\$33,973	\$29 35	\$12 15	\$2,596,356	32,854,556	—
N. Hampshire,	10,920,500	85,036	7,679	4,839,439	2,911	9,211	75,713	134,131	25 45	13 47	8,830,619	113,106,247	149,700 lbs. yarn.
Vermont,	992,500	2,343	—	114,415	94	147	1,460	1,961	15 55	12 07	196,100	1,651,000	33,050 "
Massachusetts,	28,435,630	225,607	46,545	11,289,309	9,293	19,437	212,892	264,514	22 01	13 55	10,712,461	298,751,392	333,660 "
Rhode Island,	6,675,000	50,713	13,116	3,484,579	4,959	5,916	92,982	70,656	18 61	13 95	6,447,130	96,725,612	1,092,980 "lbr & day'n.
Connecticut,	4,912,160	39,453	2,866	2,509,062	2,708	3,478	51,679	41,090	19 08	11 61	4,237,522	51,780,700	950,000 "
New York,	4,176,920	37,778	1,539	1,985,973	2,632	3,688	48,244	35,690	18 33	9 68	3,591,989	44,901,475	2,180,600 "
New Jersey,	1,453,500	14,437	4,467	666,645	616	1,000	11,078	10,487	17 86	9 56	1,100,594	8,132,560	2,000,000 "
Pennsylvania,	4,825,925	44,162	24,189	3,152,530	3,564	4,090	63,642	40,656	17 86	9 91	5,322,262	45,746,780	5,308,501 "
Delaware,	469,100	4,730	1,920	312,068	413	425	6,326	4,996	15 55	11 59	538,439	3,621,636	533,000 "
Maryland,	2,926,000	23,325	1,920	1,165,579	1,008	2,014	15,546	19,108	15 42	9 53	2,220,504	27,883,923	46,000 "
Virginia,	1,098,900	17,785	4,895	898,375	1,375	1,688	12,963	11,791	10 15	6 98	1,486,384	15,640,107	1,755,915 "
North Carolina,	1,085,800	13,617	—	531,903	442	1,177	5,153	7,216	13 60	6 13	831,242	2,470,110	2,997,000 "
South Carolina,	957,200	9,959	—	295,971	399	620	5,565	5,151	13 94	5 30	748,338	6,563,737	1,348,343 "
Georgia,	1,736,156	30,330	1,000	900,419	873	1,399	12,725	10,332	14 57	7 39	2,135,044	7,599,292	4,198,351 "
Florida,	30,000	600	—	30,000	98	67	900	335	22 14	5 00	49,920	694,000	700,000 "
Alabama,	651,000	5,308	—	237,081	346	369	4,053	2,946	11 71	7 96	382,260	3,081,000	171,000 "
Mississippi,	36,000	430	—	21,500	19	17	270	101	14 21	5 34	30,500	—	—
Louisiana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Texas,	16,500	170	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Arkansas,	609,600	6,411	—	8,975	13	18	190	106	14 61	5 88	16,637	—	81,250 "
Tennessee,	229,000	—	3,010	297,500	310	581	3,394	3,730	10 95	6 42	510,624	363,250	2,326,250 "
Kentucky,	297,000	—	780	180,907	181	221	2,707	2,070	14 62	9 36	373,459	1,003,000	725,000 "
Ohio,	—	—	2,152	237,060	132	269	2,191	2,534	16 60	9 05	394,700	280,000	432,000 "
Michigan,	43,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indiana,	—	675	300	28,220	38	57	495	386	13 00	6 77	44,200	—	300,000 "
Illinois,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Missouri,	102,000	—	1,658	86,446	75	80	620	600	10 94	10 00	142,900	—	13,250 bales batting.
Iowa,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
California,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dist. Columbia,	83,000	900	—	67,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total,	\$71,991,031	641,240	131,099	\$34,832,056	33,150	50,126	\$653,778	\$703,414	14 05	8 01	\$61,860,164	763,678,467	37,872,000 lbs. and bales.

This is the result of the progress of our country in this department of industry in little more than fifty years, mainly brought about by the introduction of labor-saving machinery.

"Our clock strikes when there is a change from hour to hour; but no hammer in the Horologe of Time peals through the universe when there is a change from era to era."* May we not, however clearly discern in the progress of invention in the last half century, and its devotion to works of usefulness and the arts of peace, the commencement of not only a new, but of a more truly glorious and happy era in the history of mankind?

During the earlier part of the period we have been considering, the fields of Europe were red with the blood of contending armies. If there was a pause in the whirlwind of battle, it was but the pause of exhaustion to gain new strength for renewed contention. This has passed away.

A spectacle new in this world's history has taken its place; the nations of the earth gather together in a gorgeous edifice, new in its architectural designs, appropriately named *THE CRYSTAL PALACE*, to test the superiority of artistic skill.

The monarch of earth's proudest nation takes the lead in this high festival, giving an earnest that in all coming time, labor and artistic excellence shall bear the palm and receive distinguished honors.

Art. II.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM.

RECENT political occurrences, transpiring at home and abroad, considered in connection with the general changes in civil life, and the improved commercial relations of States, have added much to the importance of the consular office, and induced the inquiry, whether as an element of this government at least, the system is not greatly defective, and its functions seriously impaired, by the undefined and equivocal character the office, by law or custom, is made to assume. Statesmen, old in experience, and versed in the affairs of government and commercial law, have declared their inability to expound what are the functions which appertain to the consular office, as constituted by the laws of the United States; and they are even more uncertain as regards the provisions of what is denominated the *consular code*. It is essential that the system should be revised, not only because the demands of commerce point to the necessity of material modifications—not only because, thereby, abuses will be rectified affecting the seaman, which have gone uncorrected for years, and which have stood as precedents by which others have been

* Carlyle.

allowed to multiply—but because, in this “age of progression,” it is needful that every precaution should be adopted against involving our interests in grave foreign issues, which may be occasioned by the extravagant zeal of commercial agents, acting from warm impulses, and unrestrained by legislative enactments which should govern them in their office. We do not take the position, that consuls should be divested of all diplomatic authority; we are not espousing the contrary view, and demanding for them a vesture of full diplomatic powers. So far as our remarks on this score extend, we are perfectly indifferent what amount and what degree of responsibility attaches to their official functions. Our position is, that their duties shall be clearly and unequivocally defined by law, and not warranted only by custom; that they shall be obedient to strict instructions in the performance of their mission; that they shall not go out as commercial ambassadors, wholly ignorant of the duties of an office, the character of which has never been positively decided, and, by misguided acts, embroil the nation in an injurious foreign war. Let consuls enter upon their duties with the laws as a text-book in their hands, and by these be entirely governed in their official acts. Imperfect as our consular system is, it is one of the most dangerous experiments that the government can be guilty of, to grant an exequatur to a commercial agent, and transport him to some foreign shore, and expect him, especially at a period so inflammable and revolutionary as the present, to avoid all the snares of chance action, and so comport himself as to prevent fatal collisions while he endeavors to do justice to his country and his countrymen. If he is suffered to escape offence on all sides, chance has had more to do with it than his construction of the legal duties of his position; but if he fails, and unfortunate results attend his mission, he is excusable; for he throws himself back upon the *common usages* of the office, and finds ample justification for his conduct therein.

The consular office was originally one of commercial expediency only, and involved neither judicial nor diplomatic responsibilities. France, at the period of the Crusades, had extensive commercial interests in Italy and the Levant; and the protracted agitations which the Crusades occasioned, required that agents should be appointed, or persons resident duly empowered, whose duty it would be to watch over these interests, and protect them from the dangers by which they were beset. It was as much a measure of economy to the general government, as of individual benefit to the French merchants; for a diminution of trade on the Levant, or in Italy, at that time, would have proved of serious inconvenience to the imperial exchequer. The example thus set by France was followed by other nations, until, in the sixteenth century, the consular office

was erected and recognised throughout Europe. But, as we have said, there were attached to it neither judicial nor diplomatic responsibilities. It was purely a commercial institution, restricted to that sense, and as such appointed and officered. It continued to be limited to this meaning until the treaty of Dardanelles, in 1809, when Great Britain, for the better security of property in the Mediterranean and its waters, obtained for its commercial agents in the Ottoman empire original privileges, among others, the right to adjudicate in criminal suits where the defence was a British seaman. Subsequently, by treaty with the Chinese government, similar, or even more extensive privileges were obtained for British consuls in the Chinese ports; and gradually, by special concession, other nations which have sought an augmentation of consular authority, have been equally favored by these and the Barbary powers, and in few instances by the islanders of the Pacific. But all these are special, not general concessions to the consular system. Either the office still partakes of its original character, without any extension of authority, (embracing criminal judicature and even political arbitrament,) except in the instances named; or it has undergone important and various modifications. If the latter—by what action?—for a state has not the power in itself to enlarge the authority of a consul in a foreign port, without the consent of the government to which he may be accredited. If the former, we take it that commercial agents have latterly been exceeding their legal duties, endangering the peace of nations, and giving occasion for grave questions, which, but for the amenity of the parties mainly offended, might have led to serious results.

Admitting that our consular system is as perfect as that of most governments, on what is it actually based? It depends for its vitality on law; but it exists by tolerance only, for it would be difficult to digest from our statutes, enactments, or legislative provisions, any tangible rules for the government of the office, or a code for restraining the functionary from any act short of suspending diplomatic relations with a government. It is this unbounded license which is to be dreaded, and which, since the recent conduct of our consuls at Havana, Smyrna, Marseilles, and elsewhere, calls for legislative cognizance. While, fortunately, we feel pride in being able to say we approve of the action of our consular agents on each of these occasions, it proves that their selection for these posts was a manifestation of forecast and judgment; but it more palpably indicates how necessary it is to environ the office with legal restraints, that in future the safety of the state may not be again alike imperilled.

The actual judicial province of consuls, as defined by law, and by the decision of our courts, consists briefly in this: They may claim, in the absence of an unauthorized agent, in behalf of

the citizen of their country.* They may institute proceedings *in rem*, without a special power from those for whom they act.† But they cannot receive the restitution of the thing in controversy without such power;‡ nor can they interpose a claim in a prize cause merely on account of the territorial jurisdiction of their nation.§ Custom has sanctioned these privileges, until they have come to be regarded as rights, growing out of the political and social intercourse of States; but there is no recognised universal law of nations which clothes the commercial agent with judicial powers at all, or concedes to him the right of interposing superior privileges in courts of justice or equity. The office of ambassador is of different construction. It is defined by a universal law of nations; and no treaty can either affect it in enlarging the powers of the functionary, or in contracting them, without violation of the rights and dignity of other states, accrediting or not accrediting to the same courts. All other authority vested in the consul, in the administration of his office, as regards the duties due his government, is the result of a tacit agreement or absolute compact between the merchant community and the appointing power, and between individuals and their employers. These duties vary, according to the conventional understanding of the parties, or the instructions which the consul receives. By treaty, as we have said, original privileges were some years since accorded to British consuls in the Ottoman empire, in the ports of China, and elsewhere. The same, or similar privileges, were secured by the United States for its commercial agents in these ports, the principal of which we shall notice.

It was held that it was unjust to place an American citizen under the restraints of a pagan government, and try him for supposed misdemeanors, committed by him in innocence of wrong, according to Mohammedan or pagan belief, and to be punished according to Mohammedan or pagan codes. Article 4th of our treaty with the Sultan of Turkey, says, "Offences committed by American citizens in Turkey, shall be tried by their minister or consul, and punished according to their offence, following, in this respect, the usage observed toward the other Franks." In the 21st article of the recent treaty with China, it is provided that citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the consul, or other public functionary of the United States, according to the laws of the United States." In thus surrendering a principle of sovereignty to the United States, these powers evidently believed that, while we were investing the consul with extraordinary judicial authority, their magnanimity would not be abused; that justice and good faith would influence our func-

* 1 Mason, 14.

† 6 Wheat., 152.

‡ 10 Ibid, 66.

§ 3 Ibid, 435.

tionaries to sit in judgment with impartial integrity, and be bound to declare according to the evidence and the testimony, and without respect to their prejudices or their individual feelings.

When we come to reflect that, according to the fee system, many of our consulates are not worth a hundred dollars a year; that men are appointed, in a majority of cases, who are not only ignorant of the laws, but of the real nature of a legal offence; that, in order to subsist, he must have augmented resources; that the offender may have extensive commercial relations, and can control the course of a great deal of trade; it must appear plain that justice is sometimes outraged, the guilty allowed to escape, and a spirit of bitterness and enmity engendered, to the prejudice of the community and the welfare of our commercial interests. It is from such seemingly trifling circumstances that the germs of future discord have their growth. This conviction is the more readily forced upon us by the reflection that Turk and Pagan, accustomed as they are to summary modes of punishment, cannot understand why our lenity covers so vast a surface of ground, while we should exact of them the very letter of the compact. Under existing treaties with Tripoli, Tunis, Morocco, and Muscat, all disputes between citizens of the United States, in those countries, are to be decided by the consul; and by treaties with Sweden, Prussia, Russia, Hanover, Portugal, and some of the states of South America, our consuls have the right to sit in judgment as arbitrators in such differences as may arise between the captains and crews of American vessels in those countries; but no act of Congress, nor any decision of the Supreme Court, based upon either law or custom, has ever prescribed the mode in which this judicial power shall be exercised! It is all discretionary with the consul, who has it within the province of his action to create the most alarming consequences. And the same laxity which exists with respect to the judicial mode of procedure, in the case of the consul to the last-named States, exists in the case of our consuls accredited to Turkey and China, who may, at their option, adopt rules, and set up a code in very antagonism to the dictates of prudence, humanity, and justice.

The principal acts of Congress which concern consuls and the consular system, were passed:—the first, April 14, 1792; the second, Feb. 28, 1803; the third, May 1, 1810; the fourth, March 13, 1813; the fifth, March 3, 1817; the sixth, March 1, 1823; the seventh, March 3, 1835; and the eighth, July 20, 1840. In these general acts—in all the wide range of consular duties—the consular agent is left almost entirely to follow his own dictates, without so much as a clause of law to direct him in the most important of all his functions. Mr. Buchanan, while Se-

cretary of State, used this language on this score: "Congress," he said, "would not tolerate that any important officer within the United States—for example, a collector of the customs—should exercise such a discretion. How much more necessary, then, that a class of public agents, whose field of duty lies beyond the limits of the United States, far from the means of information, and whose conduct must materially affect the interests of our foreign commerce, and may, under peculiar circumstances, even endanger the peace of the country, should have their powers and duties defined in a clear and explicit manner." It is worthy of remark, in this connection, that in a majority of instances, no communication is had by the government with our consuls abroad, for intervals varying from one to eight years; during all which period, the commercial agent enjoys his office without dictation from a higher tribunal than that established by himself, and without any control over his official conduct, save his own conscience. A weak effort was made in the House of Representatives in 1846, and again in 1850, to correct this doubtful policy; but it was whelmed in the vortex of politics—lost amid the strife of sectionalism, and shared the ultimate fate of other important questions touching the general good;—it was never heard of more.

The laws as we have cited, as regards the political and judicial character of the consul, clothe him almost entirely with discretionary power. The act of 1792, which recognises the pre-existence of the office, rather than establishes it, defines certain duties of a commercial character to which the consul shall be bound; and the subsequent acts of Congress add to and more clearly particularize these duties; but, palpable as must have appeared the omissions relating to the judicial and political functions of the consul—dangerous as it must have seemed to the framers of the subsequent laws, to vest in an agent so peculiarly circumstanced, powers that are denied every other public servant, even on the soil—they were guilty of the same oversight or want of prudence—a fault more criminal than they had precedent to avoid—by clothing the consul with almost similar discretionary power in the commercial relations of his office. Thus, what had been admitted as a wrong or blunder of legislation in the first instance, was not only *not* corrected, but those who cudgelled their brains afterwards, in the attempt to rasp down the rough prominences of the office by a perversity almost incredible, slid into the error of copying these faults in all the after legislation of Congress, even to their reiteration or confirmation in the act of 1840.

It may be argued that, inasmuch as the conduct of our consuls abroad had never occasioned other notice or remark than what was commendable to themselves and the government, a

necessity, or even an expediency, had not presented for any modification of the system; and that, therefore, it deserved to be maintained intact. It needs little to break down such a view; but we doubt whether any one would seriously support it, and hence we shall pass on to more reasonable deductions. That which we call our consular system, has never caused us to be embroiled in trouble with foreign countries, by the extravagant latitude given our commercial agents, is fortunate, most fortunate; that the future will prove equally as tender of our interests, let us seriously mistrust.

But it is not this doubt only which invites us to consider the imperfections of the consular system, and to urge its revision. Apart from the subject of our political relations with foreign States—apart from the judicial character of the office in distant ports, there are individual interests involved in the question, which, though minor in detail, when associated as a whole, are quite as imposing as the other propositions. We allude—1st, to the relation of the consul to the merchant community; 2d, to the relation of the consul to the ship-owner; and 3d, to the relation of the mariner, or seaman, to both. These three general views embrace other relations, which grow out of the nature of the consular office, and the provisions made by law for the parties severally concerned.

1. The consul is authorized and instructed to expend certain moneys for the relief of destitute American seamen in foreign ports.

2. He is authorized and instructed, on the joint application of master and seamen, to discharge the latter from service, and to ship him to his own country.

3. For which purpose, three months' pay was allowed the seaman, under the act of 1803, two-thirds to be employed in bearing his expenses to the United States, and one-third to go toward founding seamen's retreats abroad, or hospitals, in which the sick or disabled were to be cared for, until they could embark for their homes, or return to their duties; but this clause, by the act of 1840, has, without the least show of reason or justice, been abolished. And,

4. The consul is allowed a certain per cent. on the moneys expended by him, for the benefit of the seaman, according as circumstances may demand.

On all moneys so expended, the per centum, we believe, is still five cents on the dollar. It would be a violation of decency, to say nothing of courtesy, were we to charge that any of the consuls of the United States would take advantage of this provision of law, and squander money recklessly, for the sake of the per centage; it would be less charitable to intimate that bills have been made out against this government, of moneys

expended, when subsequent investigation has proved the contrary, thus making the consul the recipient of both principal and interest. Nevertheless, official figures show the singular disparity—that while the act of 1803 remained in force, which required the payment by the master of three months' extra pay, for the benefit of the discharged sailor, and for hospital purposes, the consular expenditures remained almost stationary; while, since the act of 1840 abolished that clause of the act, from an annual expenditure of \$40,000, the amount now drawn for verges close upon \$100,000 per annum, and is rapidly increasing. The act of 1803 also provided against the discharge of the seamen in a foreign port, without such drawbacks and guaranties as made the master peculiarly liable to the government for such charges as it might incur in protecting him. The act of 1840 wholly nullifies this wise provision, and stipulates that "the consul shall discharge such mariner, on the joint application of the master and himself." He then, in all probability, becomes a charge upon the government; and the consul, in providing for him, is entitled to five cents for every dollar he expends for him. This is a powerful temptation for mal-administration of office,—the more powerful, that, owing to the mode of compensation being a fees-basis, many consulates are not worth one hundred dollars per annum.

Seamen, as a class, have their real home upon the ocean billows. Their vessel is their castle and their hearth. When, as they often do manifest a disposition to put feet upon *terra firma*, mere curiosity excites them, as we are led by curiosity to tempt voyages of pleasure on the water. It matters little to them whether they make a stay on land in the ports of the new world, or of the old—whether among the Chinese or the New-Yorkers, provided food is afforded for the gratification of a whim. When the master of a vessel had carried his cargo safely into a distant port, it may be that a good offer is made him for his vessel. A bargain is struck; Jack is told that his services are no longer required; he is induced for a trifle to join the master in asking of the consul his discharge; and the consul will be the gainer by granting the application. We are mentioning the condition of things as they might be, not presenting actual cases, although complaints have hitherto found their way to Washington, of excessive tampering in this respect. It was averred in one particular instance, that an American consul had lent his countenance and his purse, if not his name, to the establishment of a local hospital, a drug store, and a sailors' boarding-house. The consulate was not really worth in fees, for the legitimate duties of the office, fifty dollars per annum; yet, after the passage of the act of 1840, an incumbent received the appointment, and in 1848 was displaced; but not until he

had amassed, according to filed statements, an independent fortune. Thus, however honest the consul may be in his relations to the government and the commercial community, the malfeasance of one will cause odium or suspicion to rest on all; and, instead of the office being regarded as a branch of economy and protection to the nation, and the public, it will come to be, if it is not already so, considered as an agency only for the promotion of private fortunes, and an establishment derogatory to the dignity of the State.

The mode of compensating our consuls deserves next to be treated of. Almost every nation, our own excepted, pay fixed salaries to their commercial agents. This mode, as a rule, is founded in justice to the consul, and redounds in greater advantage to the government. If the office is worth maintaining, that maintenance should be ample. It should not be left to doubt for its support, nor be subject to possibilities for certainties. By the fees' system, compensation, from the nature of the case, must vary. Commerce has its beaten tracks on every water, and in every hemisphere; but there are nations with whom we have more important and extensive commercial intercourse than with others. The consul at Liverpool may estimate his fees at \$12,000 per annum, and they are said to have exceeded that amount, while the consul at Constantinople has drawn as low as \$100 per annum, which amount it rarely much exceeds. Now here there is such a disproportion as to justify us in naming the office at Constantinople with nothing at all; and out of the one hundred and fifty, or one hundred and seventy-five consulates which we create abroad, at least two-thirds pay less than \$1,000 per annum—the majority of these varying from \$200 to \$500. Why is it, it may be asked, if these offices are so poor in fees, that there are always persons eager to accept them, and who, many of them, return well satisfied with their missions? We fear that in dealing with this question, we shall again be forced to throw unintentional discredit on the incumbents in an attempt to stigmatize the system, as it is constituted. Men, eminent as merchants, as scholars, as statesmen, or as politicians, do not accept these posts; they are usually filled by young men, without an overstock of pecuniary means, but who have an adventurous spirit, and sufficient shrewdness to take every honorable advantage of fate or chance to better their condition. They may receive the appointment as consuls to foreign ports in perfect good faith—go out untarnished in character, and guiltless of intentional wrong in their minds; but if they do not prove derelict, they will still bear the brands of suspicion, and starve as a penalty for their honesty.

Let us explain. The consul speedily becomes, if he is not previously, aware that his fees will not suffice for his support.

His office, however, gives him rank; and that rank, which is his only to serve the Government and the community of that Government, he employs to subserve his private interests. He can do this only with certain advantage in one way. He agrees with a commercial house, if he be not able to establish himself at once on his own account, to become correspondent for it, consignee, or partner. His rank affords him opportunities which, as a private resident, he could not command; as consul, he can, to a certain extent, control many of the operations in the market, and direct them to his own benefit. He has it in his power, in the matter of granting ships' paper, to frustrate the actual design of a voyage; and there is no redress for the aggrieved parties; for, as we have shown, the consul is literally an unamenable agent—an officer clothed almost wholly with discretionary authority. As correspondent and consignee of a single commercial house, or of more, he is supposed to be, or may be in reality, in league against all others. If the latter, it shows the injury which individual interests are made to endure—the benefits secured by a few to the detriment of the many, and of the stupendous frauds which are permitted to exist, over which the Government is forced to extend its agis. If the former, it shows that suspicion and distrust have grounds on which to build, and that all the rectitude that may rightfully appertain to the incumbent will not shield him, nor prevent merchants not associated with him in business from entertaining doubts of his probity and uprightness.

We shall not extend this article by enumerating other defects which are evident and hurtful in our Consular system. They have been made the subject of complaint to Congress repeatedly; not by the merchant, not by the seamen, not by one class of persons interested only, but by all parties, encouraged by the voice of the whole public. Any one who will ponder even on the outline of imperfections to which we have invited attention, must be struck with their enormity, without the enumeration of others. The foreign commerce of the United States ranks in magnitude with that of any nation of the globe; and perhaps that of no nation requires more earnest and zealous watching. It is, unlike that of a majority of countries, made up of every prime necessary and luxury of life; and one commodity bears, in its relation to the whole, an equal importance, and demands equal care and fostering watchfulness. It is vastly on the increase, and every water is destined to float our flag. The Turk, the Chinese, the Pacific Islander, or the inhabitant of the Polar zone, is in some degree worthy of commercial consideration; for that law of nature which makes one individual dependent on another, acts in the same way with communities, without respect to localities—without respect to climate. And in

proportion, too, as vigilant care is taken to protect this commerce, and to cultivate a good understanding with States, will prosperity attend commercial efforts at home, and smile on the industry of all labor.

Art. III.—THE TURKS AND THE HOLY LAND.

SOME NOTES ON TOURS AND TOURISTS, PALESTINE, ETC., ETC.

PALESTHIN, translated Palestine, called also the Promised Land, denotes properly the entire land of Canaan, having Syria on the north, Arabia Petraea on the south, and the Mediterranean Sea on the west.

Here dwelt Abraham, and here "Lot lifted up his eyes, and beheld all the plain of Jordan, that it was well watered every where, even as the garden of the Lord. And Lot chose him all the plain of Jordan, and journeyed east; and Abraham dwelt in the land of Canaan." Here also are Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and Jericho on Mount Judah, and the Mounts Carmel and Tabor, and Jerizim, and Moriah, and the Mount of Olives, and the brook Kedron, and the country beyond Jordan, and Lebanon, and Lake Genesareth, and the Dead Sea, and Nazareth, and Cara, and the Valley of Jehoshaphat, and Gethsemane, with its chapel of the sepulchre of the Virgin Mary, and the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, whose walls encompass the places for ever made memorable for the burial and resurrection of the Saviour. And here are monks of St. Francis, and Protestant clergymen, and Abyssinians and Greeks, Copts and Armenians, Nestorians and Jacobites, Maronites and Georgians. Here, it is said, the Jews, dispersed to the four quarters of the globe, are to congregate. Here have travelled the Abbé Guenée, and Clarke, and Durbin, and Ingraham, and Chateaubriand, and Buckingham, and Rae Wilson, and John Lewes Burckhardt, and the infidel Constantin Francois Chassebœuf de Volney, and Nugent, and Lamar-tine, and a host of others.

There is something peculiarly attractive in a journey to Palestine. Judea can never cease to be a land of abounding interest, while man continues naturally to be an idolater.

Jerusalem has been sacked sixteen times. It was taken by Titus, A. D. 72; and what destruction he did not complete was finished by the emperor Adrian, who built a town upon its ruins, which he called *Ælia Capitolina*. Judea was then deserted by the Jews as a people, though a small remnant remained. These scattered people the emperor Julian endeavored vainly to recollect in Judea, upon the pledge of assistance to rebuild the city. After this, the country fell into the hands of the Persians.

It was taken by a Persian prince by the name of Cosroes, in 613, and re-taken in 627, by Herodius. After that, one of the successors of Mahomet subdued it. Walter Scott's novel of the Crusaders, narrates events that occurred after Saladin, who conquered Asia, had recaptured the largest portion of the country from the princes of the Christian faith, in 1188. After that the Mamelukes, and then the Turks of Constantinople, led by the brave Selim, obtained possession of it. It is the only country in the world whose original inhabitants are a distinct people, and who live elsewhere than in their own land. This is certainly one of the puzzles of history. We do not think a history of this country is written; we do not think that a book of eastern travel to Palestine has been written; there have been attempts without number. The imagination has ability hardly to survey the distance between Lamartine and J. Ross Browne, the latest of these eastern tourists. Lamartine has thrown among his descriptions of the holy places and the venerable relicts of the past, that make the country such an interesting subject of curiosity, all that could dazzle the imagination, pique the curiosity, or soften the heart.

Browne, upon the contrary, with all his plain Kentucky good sense, has dressed up every thing venerable and august, from the memories of the past, in the every day, practical, homespun, habilaments of the real and the true. The one draws too largely upon the imagination of the past for that fidelity that should mark the historian.

The other is too matter-of-fact and depreciatory, for the exalted conceptions of the Holy Land, that find so ready a lodgment in the minds of his American readers.

As long as the Bible, and the history of the Bible, are our common household words, and form the staple of our religious knowledge, and as long as the human affections are connected with the thrilling circumstances therein related, will Palestine have tourists and historians. The world has been on the brink of a fearful crisis, in the probable conflict growing out of the Russo-Grecian question, connected with the religious privileges of the Greek Christians to visit the holy places.

The pious Emperor of Russia considers himself under "holy obligations," and "in full confidence in the right hand of the Almighty," to "move forward on behalf of the orthodox faith."

It is a circumstance full of food for reflection—that the most memorable places connected with the Christian faith—for ever memorable as the scene of the birth, labors, and tragic death of its author—should be in the hands of its bitterest foes. "Dog of a Christian," was the mad war-cry of the followers of the Crescent.

The Turks are not only the masters of all the seats of primi-

tive Christianity, but of fifteen millions of the followers of Christ. This dominion began over five hundred and fifty years ago. The Sultan Orchan has the honor of being the earliest in this royal game. One hundred and sixty years thereafter, Constantinople was stormed and taken, and was rebaptised and became Mahometan. Constantinople was the first Christian capital of the earth, and was under the rule of Christian Constantine, although there had been fourteen Constantines before him. All this is worthy the study of the historian.

A rev. gentleman, who resides, we think, at Detroit, writing from Jerusalem, says:—"One of the most affecting sights I have witnessed during my travels, was encountered yesterday P. M. I repaired to the appointed spot to hear the lamentations of the Jews over their desolated temple and scattered nation. The site of the ancient temple is now occupied by the Mosque of Omar. No Christian or Jew is allowed by the Musselmen to enter its precincts. The nearest approach that the Jews can make to it is to the large and massive stones of the wall which Solomon built, from the top of the narrow valley or ravine called the Tyropean, for the purpose of sustaining and forming the terrace, or arches which were built out from the base of the rock on its four sides, and on which the temple on Mount Moriah was originally constructed. I saw thirty-five Jews standing, or seated near these stones, all of them bowing and restlessly swinging to and fro, while they read their Scriptures in the Hebrew, and some weeping bitterly as they uttered their wail of distress. One man sobbed as if his heart was ready to break, while he stood reading, and trembling with emotion in his whole frame. Women with white scarfs thrown over their heads, passed mournfully along the wall; some kissed the stones with their lips, others laid their hands on them and then kissed their hands, whilst most sat in a squatted, or Turk-like position, reading parts of their liturgy in Hebrew. I ventured, with a courteous salutation, to look upon the page from which an aged man was quietly reading. He politely pointed his finger to the place. He was reading the 58th, 59th and 60th Psalms. The whole scene was so deeply moving, exhibiting in such a powerful light the sad reality of the Jew's great national sorrow, and caused such a rush of solemn thoughts in my mind, that I was quite overcome by it."

Mr. J. Ross Browne saw nothing like this scene. Quite recently, the English nation excluded a gentleman of education and undoubted integrity of character, from the privilege of representing his fellow-citizens upon the floor of the House of Parliament, upon the ground that he was a Jew. All this is quite singular.

Quite recently, also, Prussia, by no means deficient in good

sense or learning, in the First Prussian Chamber, voted the exclusion of Jews from all civil employment!

Of Jerusalem itself, Mr. Browne remarks:—"Perhaps upon the whole face of the globe, there could not be found a spot less holy than Jerusalem. All the fierce bad passions that drive men to crime, are let loose here, in the struggle for immortality; all the better traits of human nature are buried in fanaticism; all the teachings of wisdom and humanity are violated in a brutal battle for spiritual supremacy." God seems to have specially guarded the holy places from becoming tributary to the weak tendency of human nature—that tendency to worship the near and real, instead of the far and invisible. There seems to attend the worship of all material objects an evil tendency to bad passions, whether that worship descends to graven images, or rises to mosques, sepulchres, or consecrated places. The strife of sects, rivalling each other in the love of the material and the external, is, from natural, and we may indeed say from religious causes, fierce and bitter, and it is unquestionably anti-Christian and revolting. The interest that consecrated places awakens in the heart of man may be very philosophically traced to the same fountain and source whence spring the mythological superstitions of pagan nations. If the Jewish nation has been remarkable for one thing above another, it has been the distrust of the absent and the unreal, or in other words, the preference of the real and present over the distant. Hence both their proneness to idolatry, and their passion for money-getting and money-hoarding. Although the chosen people of heaven, they have ever repaid this choice by the grossest idolatries.

No imagination can conceive a more revolting, yet a more faithful representation of this occult and unmistakable feeling that has characterized this people, from their early superstitions to those of the present day, than the mock scene of gloomy superstition witnessed by Dr. Duffield. The feeling these blind and superstitious bigots here manifested, is as distinctly observable in the Turks with regard to Mahomedan sanctuaries, and in other pagan nations, as in the Jews. There is not a little of it even in the more enlightened Christian nations.

The Turks, reigning over a Christian capital of the slain viceroy of Christ, have the singular satisfaction of contemplating the war of words, and the din of strife, and the flow of Christian, fraternal blood, springing up around the very tomb of Christ, among his pretended disciples of the Copts, the Armenians, the Maronites, and the Greek and Roman Catholics, and of "pointing the moral," and of "adorning the tale," of the difference between the mild doctrines of Jesus, and the conduct of his misguided followers. "Be kindly affectioned one toward another," is the instructive words of their Divine Master.

The picture Mr. Browne gives of the hostility prevailing among the different Christian sects, who gain a precarious subsistence by donations from the charitable, is gloomy in the extreme. This tendency to ill blood, whose manifestation is not less repugnant to the mild spirit of Christianity than congenial to the superstitious reverence for holy places, in contradistinction from the *principles* they enunciate and immortalize, is attended with the happy consequence of effecting its own cure, in the final dissolution, which it so materially aids, of all that now remains of the superstructures by which those places are known and held in remembrance. Decay is written on these mongrel structures, half heathen and half christian, which are still to be seen at Jerusalem. The very detestable rivalry among the many Christian sects, who hate each other with a feeling that a Turk might envy, will ultimately and very naturally result in the speedy, and if the evident tendency of providential circumstances may give us warrant for the expression, in the happy consummation of their entire erasure from human knowledge and human observation for ever.

No one sect would bear the labor and expense of repairs, or of improvements, that would enure to the benefit of the others; and these others, in their turn, will not tolerate that supremacy in the one, that would be implied by the right of improving or beautifying. Hate, at all quarters of the globe, is essentially short-sighted, and the "wrath of man" here is evidently working out the unmistakable purposes of Providence. Sectarian hate at Jerusalem would less grieve at the silent but sure decay of the objects of its superstition, and hence mock-reverence, than be willing to give a momentary glow of triumph to a rival—but detested opposite sect.

Mr. Browne's description is very graphic. "The Greeks and the Romans, who are the two largest sects," as he says, "and the Copts, Armenians and Maronites, have each a share in it, (the Holy Sepulchre,) which they hold by sufferance of the Turkish government; but this union of proprietorship, instead of producing a corresponding unity of feeling, occasions bitter and constant hostility. The Greeks and Romans, who are the two largest sects, and in some sort rivals, hate each other with a ferocity *unparalleled in the annals of religious intolerance.*"

The color of the rose is around all that Lamartine writes of the east. Hear him:

"Dans mon enfance je me suis représenté souvent ce paradis terrestre, cet Eden que toutes les nations ont dans leurs souvenirs, soit comme un beau rene, soit comme une tradition d'un temps et d'un séjour plus parfait; j'ai suivi Milton dans ses délicieuses descriptions de ce séjour enchanté de nos premiers parents; mais ici, comme en toutes chases, la nature surpasse infiniment l'imagination. Dieu n'a pas donné à l'homme de rêver aussi beau qu'il a fait. J'avais rêvé Eden, je puis dire que je l'ai

vu. D'un de ces plateaux nous montions à un autre; mêmes scènes mêmes encientes d'arbres, même mosaïque de végétation sur le terrain qu'elles entourent; seulement de plateau en plateau, le magnifique horizon s'enlargissait, les plateaux inférieurs s'étendaient comme un damier [draught-board] de toutes couleurs où les haies d'arbustes, rapprochées et groupées par l'optique formaient des bois et des taches sombres sous nos pieds. Nous suivîmes ces plateaux de collines en collines, redescendant de temps en temps dans les vallons qui les séparent: vallons mille fois plus ombrages, plus délicieux encore que les collines; tous voiles par les rideaux des terrasses que les dominent, tous ensevelis dans ces vagues de végétation odorante, mais ayant tous cependant à leur embouchure une étroite échappée de vue (vista) sur la plaine et sur la mer. Comme la plaine disparaît à cause de l'élévation de ces vallées elle semblent déboucher immédiatement sur la plage [the shore] leurs arbres se détachent en noir sur le bleu des vagues et nous nous amusons quelquefois assis au pied d'un palmier, à voir les voiles des vaisseaux, qui étaient en réalité à quatre ou cinq lieues de nous, glisser lentement d'un arbre à l'autre comme s'ils eussent navigué sur un lac, dont ces vallons étaient immédiatement le rivage."

Thackeray, the king of them, has written a "Book of Snobs," and although he has several chapters upon "A visit to some country snobs," he has not classified and dissected the snob travellers to the Holy Land. He has a characteristic chapter upon "Continental Snobbery," but none upon oriental snobbery. How qualified to shine in this department of his chosen snobbery, we may well suppose, from the following exquisite morceau upon the continental snob.—"That brutal, ignorant, peevish bully of an Englishman," says this admirably truthful delineator of the national characteristics of his own countrymen, "is showing himself in every city of Europe. One of "the dullest creatures under Heaven, he goes tramping Europe under foot, shouldering his way into galleries and cathedrals, and bustling into palaces with his buckram uniform. At church or theatre, gala or picture-gallery, *his* face never varies. A thousand delightful sights pass before his blood-shot eyes, and don't affect him; countless brilliant scenes of life and manner are shown him, but never move him. He goes to church, and calls the practices there degrading and superstitious, as if *his* altar were the only one that was acceptable. He goes to the picture galleries, and is more ignorant about art than a French shoe-black. Art, nature, pass, and there is no dot of admiration in his stupid eyes; nothing moves him except when a very great man comes in his way, and then the rigid, proud, self-confident, inflexible, British snob, can be as humble as a flunkey, and as supple as a harlequin." Ah! commend us to the Arkansas rogue, after this, for the residue of our lives—Arkansas bowie knives are much to be preferred. An Arkansas bowie knife, whatever other things may be said against it, and their name we confess is legion, has at least none of the sickly sentimentalism of polished hate and hypocrisy. It is amusing to hear Mr. Browne dis-

course of the delights of having his trunks rummaged by police officers.

Nothing in the world can be more annoying to an American traveller (and we should suppose that a Kentuckian would especially relish it but faintly) than the law in connection with passports. He cannot well see the sense of having a gentleman's trunk searched by uneducated ruffians in the shape of grim officials, and his clothes ransacked, and himself put into an ill smothered rage, in order to find out a seditious letter, or a prohibited book, or a Colt's revolver. He thinks there is no harm in a book, even if it be the Bible, nor in a revolver, if they are quietly permitted to seek their respective positions, under the influence of a healthy, educated, free, moral, public opinion. The less legislation in regard to gentlemen's trunks, and private clothing, the American traveller is disposed to think the best.

Be this as it may, but few American tourists pass through the ordeal without much useless waste of American choler.

Mr. Browne says of the King of the Two Sicilies through whose dominions he travelled on his way to Jerusalem: "I hold myself in readiness to apologize for the remark, when called upon, to his majesty the King of the Two Sicilies, and to declare, if required, that the Neapolitan states are well governed; that the people are well governed; that I never saw so many soldiers and so much governing in all my life. Every man seems to be individually governed; and so careful is his majesty of the faithful administration of the laws, and of the personal security of his subjects, that the ramifications of government extend into every family circle, and wind everybody up, as in a cobweb. The stranger who lands at Palermo and succeeds in getting through the *Polezea*, (i. e. the private governing) will respect good government all the rest of his life. I have a very pleasing impression of the officer in attendance there. He opened my knapsack, when he heard me speak English, because he knew I must be an Englishman to address him in that language; he opened my letters one by one, and carefully read them, commencing at the signatures, and ending at the dates; when he saw that I was not Mr. Gladstone, and had no printed documents for private circulation amongst the people of Sicily, he gave me a kindly nod, and let me pass. Now I depend upon that officer, as a man of honor, never to divulge the contents of my letters, especially one that was written in German upon the subject of hocus pocus and the three farthings, and some private memoranda in shorthand."

In several directions this writer traversed Italy, and in September was at Naples. From this place, where he had the pleasure of a Sicilian law suit, in which the charming duty of pay-

ing the fees of his opposing counsel was devolved upon him, he departed for and finally reached Constantinople. His description of this famous seat of Turkish power is quite amusing, and no doubt quite faithful. The most remarkable feature about this city is the quadruped denizens, yclept dogs.

"There is, opposite to the Hotel de Byzant, an open space, inhabited by one of these canine communities, whose operations of domestic and municipal economy afford me constant food for study. Near by me is a Mahomedan grave-yard, inhabited by another tribe; and it is my chief employment every afternoon to sit on the portico smoking a chibouck, and watching the movements of my four-legged neighbors. I have formed quite an attachment for the Byzantines, and a bitter prejudice against those sneaking fellows beyond, who skulk behind the tombstones. We of the Byzant region, for I have fought for them, and am now treated as a member of the community, and always received with a general wagging of tails; we Byzantines depend chiefly for our living upon the offal cast out from a range of houses just beyond the boundary. True, this is not strictly our property, but we consider that it ought to be; and so whenever a bone, or a mutilated cat, or a defunct chicken is thrown out, we are started from our sunny corners and daily slumbers by the little curs that we keep to wake us; and headed by the shaggy old veterans who have fought their way to eminence; we sally forth in a body to seize our prey. Domestic difficulties ensue, hungry drones are the first to run, want more than their share, and scuffles take place which arouse the scouts of the enemy. Now from every tomb-stone there springs a barking foe; the grave-yard re-echoes with the call to arms; big dogs and little dogs rush furiously into battle array, and down they thunder in terrible force upon the fighting Byzantines in an avalanche of dust. One universal yell of rage and defiance rends the welkin; the smoke of battle rises on high, and for a while nothing is seen but a cloud of dust, and nothing heard but the gritting of teeth, and the tug of strife at close quarters. It is a moment of awful suspense. Shall it be victory and chicken, or defeat without chicken? The noble Byzantines, or the skulking Tombers? Now there is a swaying to and fro of the struggling mass—tails begin to appear through the dust; the wounded rush out and skulk off, panting, to places of temporary safety. Individual foes twisted up in mortal strife, tumble out, and roll together on the blood-stained field; cowards hover round in the outer circle, snapping at unguarded legs; and thieves sneak off with portions of the prey, and eat them behind the tombstones while the battle is raging. At last superior numbers prevail against desperate courage. Alas for the Byzantines! the Tombers drive them yelling be-

hind the lines. They rally and re-rally their exhausted forces, but it won't do; they are naturally and morally vanquished—the chicken is gone, and the maimed and the dying skulk off licking their wounds. Flushed with victory, the Tombers follow up to the very door-steps of the Byzant, and defile the sacred temple of the Byzantines. Do you suppose I can sit quietly with a stick in my hand, and witness this crowning insult? Not I—To the rescue! to the rescue! On Byzantines, on! Away we go! Down go the Tombers before a volley of sticks and stones, and we chase the flying foe into the very secret recesses of the grave-yard. Hurrah for the Byzantines? Victory is ours at last; and for the rest of that day the Tombers are a crest-fallen set. Many a human battle has been decided in the same way, and why shouldn't we feel proud of our victories as well as others." This truly graphic description, and no less striking deduction by way of moral improvement of the subject, is characteristic of this writer, who afterwards visits the Holy Sepulchre of Christ, and describes it.

Every body knows that Madame Hahn-Hahn has written some very clever novels. She has also been to Constantinople. Let us hear her description of this famous city:—"If none but dogs were the inhabitants of Constantinople, you would find it sufficiently difficult to make your way through a city where heaps of dirt, rubbish, and refuse of every credible and incredible composition, obstruct you at every step, and especially barricade the corners of the streets. But the dogs are not the only dwellers. Take care of yourself—here comes a train of horses, laden on each side with skins of oil—all oil without as well as within. And oh, take care again, for behind are a whole troop of asses, carrying tiles and planks, and all kinds of building material. Now give way to the right for those men with baskets of coals upon their heads, and give way, too, to the left, for those other men, four, six, eight at a time, staggering along with such a load of merchandise, that the pole, thick as your arm, to which it is suspended, bends beneath the weight. Meanwhile don't lose your head with the braying of the asses, the yelling of the dogs, the cries of the porters, and the calls of the sweet-meat and chesnut venders, but follow your dragoman, who, accustomed to all this turmoil, flies before you with winged steps, and either disappears in the crowd, or vanishes round a corner. At length you reach the cemetery. We all know how deeply the Turks respect the graves of the dead, how they visit them, and never permit them to be disturbed, as we do in Europe, after any number of years. In the abstract this is very grand; and when we imagine to ourselves a beautiful cypress grove, with tall white monumental stones, and green grass

beneath, it presents a stately and solemn picture. Now contemplate it in the reality. The monuments are overthrown, dilapidated or awry, several roughly paved streets intersect the space, —here sheep are feeding, there donkeys are waiting, here geese are cackling, there cocks are crowing; in one part of the ground linen is drying; in another, carpenters are planing; from one corner a troop of camels defile, from another a funeral procession approaches; children are playing, dogs rolling, every kind of the most unconcerned business going on. And what can be a greater profanation of the dead?—But true enough, where they were buried four hundred years ago, there they still lie.”—Page 133.

With regard to Constantinople, there is an old prophecy predicting that it would fall into Christian hands in 1854. The prophecy states that the Pagans should hold the City of the Cæsars for 400 years, and that then it should return to Christian hands and be subject to Christian authority. Upon the 8th of June next the 400 years will expire. Constantinople is a city that may well furnish food for those minds which speculate upon the philosophy of human history. It was once in the hands of Darius and Xerxes. While passing from the power of the Spartans to the Athenians and back again, it was called Byzantium. The Romans afterwards became its master. It rendered signal service to the Romans, and was repaid in liberal concessions in the way of its own municipal regulations. Under Constantine it became the future capital of the Roman power, and indeed the capital of Christendom. It was here that St. Chrysostom preached his first and his last, and his many sermons.

Some of the sermons of this distinguished divine, preached at Constantinople to crowded houses and Christian Congregations, have been translated into English, and may serve in conclusion to amuse and instruct the curious reader. In commenting on Ephesians, 4, 31—“Let all bitterness, and wrath, and anger, and clamor, and evil-speaking, be put away from you, with all malice:” he says, “above all things,” addressing his discourse to the sisters of his congregation, “Let women hear this, for it treats of their habitual practice. When they are exasperated with their damsels, the whole house re-echoes with the cry; and should the house adjoin the street, every passenger overhears the screaming mistress and the shrieking maid: ‘what can be the matter?’ bursts from every mouth. Its Mrs. So-and-so, beating her maid.—What! may she not beat her? I say not that, for she ought. But not continually, nor immoderately, nor for household trifles, nor for negligent service merely. But if the maid injures her own soul, then all men will approve, and none condemn the beating. Yes! If she will not improve, correct her,” says the preacher, “with a rod and blows. And what am I to do if she paints? Forbid it.

What if she is given to drinking, talking and scandal?—Why, how many ladies are the same!—But many a mistress is so savage as to scourge till one whole day cannot efface the stripes. And when the unhappy woman next appears in the bath, all this cruelty is disclosed. Now she is threatened with the dungeon; now assailed with ten thousand oaths and maledictions; first she is a witch, and then a street-walker, and next——, for in her foaming passion, a mistress withholds no word of insult. She stripes her and binds her to the bed-post, summons her children to the spectacle, and bids her dotard spouse act the part of executioner. Ought these things to happen in houses of Christians? Why," he concludes, "are you all blushing?—or rather not all, but such as feel it applicable to themselves!"

"Husband and wife," says the Saint, upon another occasion, "should by no means intrude on each other's province in the management of the servants. 'But look back,' cries the wife, 'at neighbor So-and-so, he is a low fellow, and his parents are nobodies. But he is ready for anything, and bustles about the world, and has made his fortune. That is the reason that his wife is covered with gold, and drives white mules to her carriage, and goes where she likes with her neat handmaidens and troop of eunuchs in her train. And you, you coward, you paltroun, you sleepy hunks, you crouch in your cell—oh, unhappy woman that I am.' A wife should not thus speak, yet if she persists, her husband must not beat her, but smooth her down, considering that she is rather flustered."

These sermons were delivered in the fourth century of the Christian era—about 399 A. D.

ART. IV.—HAYTI AND THE HAYTIENS.

HAYTI, or St. Domingo, was originally a Spanish possession, by the discovery of Columbus. The French obtained a foothold upon *La Tortue*, a small island two leagues to the northward, through the efforts of a few *flibustiers*, or pirates, of that nation. This descent alarmed Spain, and she sent a general to dislodge them. This he did by the free use of the sword and the rope, while the more daring of the buccaneers were absent, but foolishly left without placing a garrison for the protection of the place. It was fortified against the Spanish governors, but became a prey to the governor of the Windward Islands, and was taken and lost three different times afterwards by the Spaniards. In 1639, it remained in the possession of France.

In 1665, Dogeron, a chief of the *flibustiers*, was charged, as governor of *La Tortue*, with the design of capturing Hayti,

which was soon accomplished. Prostitutes were shipped from Paris to supply wives to the colonists, many of whom perished by the infection they spread. The Ministers' object was to purge Paris. Dogeron governed the colony well, without troops or laws. So far back as 1754, the products of the island were sold for exportation for 28,832,851 livres. The imports from France were valued at more than two millions sterling.

In 1764, the number of slaves amounted to 206,000. In 1767, the exports were carried to France in 347 vessels.

Hayti is estimated to be nearly 400 miles long, and from 60 to 150 broad. Its area is about 29,000 square miles, or 18,816,000 square acres. Near its centre rises the Cibao Mountains, the highest of which are estimated at nearly 9,000 feet above the sea; lower ranges ramify from these, chiefly from east to west. Highlands arise on the East among extensive plains, partly without trees, and afford good pasturage; the llanos, especially along the southern coast, which extend about eighty miles from the town of St. Domingo to Higüey, being about thirty miles in breadth. The whole of this island is naturally very fertile, particularly this plain, which is watered by the Yuna, down to the Bay of Samana. The low and swampy peninsula of Samana, on the north side of this Bay, is joined to the mainland by a low isthmus covered by the sea at spring tides. Along the northern shores, west of Samana, the mountains rise abruptly from the sea to a considerable elevation, with here and there a few slopes along the shore, of lower lands. Behind these the wide and fertile plain, or valley of Santiago, is drained by the river Yague. Along the southern and northern shores of the western part of Hayti, small tracts of level and cultivable land occur only in detached portions; but between the hilly ridges are the valleys, or rather plains of Artibonite and Cul de Sac; the one is irrigated by the Artibonite, the other partly covered by the salt lake, Laguna de Henriquillo, and has no outlet, and by the fresh-water lake, Sanmache. The region between the mountains of Cibao, and the southern coast, comprises high hills and ravines, with but few inhabitants. The soil of the plains and valleys yields the most luxurious vegetation, and the forest trees of the mountains are of gigantic growth. The most valuable trees are mahogany, lignum vitæ, iron wood, and log, or dye woods. Wild fowl, turtle, and excellent fish, are abundant on the coast.*

The coast, in most parts, is rocky, with numerous harbors for coasting vessels, some of which are capacious, with deep water, Port St. Nicholas is about six miles long, and sheltered by mountains of considerable height. The harbor of Cape Fran-

* For many of our facts we are indebted to MacGregor's *Progress of America*, and where convenient, adopt his language.

gois, on the north coast of the island, is spacious, has good anchorage, but not thoroughly sheltered. The Bay of Samana affords good anchorage, but it is not frequented, being unhealthy. The harbor of St. Domingo is exposed to southerly winds, but has good holding ground. Port-au-Prince has two good harbors, formed by islets, with excellent anchorages. Gonaives is a safe harbor, with water deep enough for large vessels. The whole island is divided into six *departments*, and thirty-three *arrondissements*.

Port-au-Prince, the capital of Hayti, is situated in the Bay of Gonaives. The streets are straight, and tolerably wide and commodious, but the houses, generally, are mean. Its trade is chiefly with the United States and Jamaica. Its population about 30,000. The town of Cape Haytien, of some trade, situated on the northern coast, has about 12,000 inhabitants. St. Domingo, formerly the Spanish capital, has about 15,000 inhabitants. Its former trade in jerked beef, cattle, and hides, has nearly vanished.

The number of the inhabitants of the Island of Hayti is variously estimated at from 800,000 to 1,000,000, being chiefly mulattoes or quadroons. The numbers of whites and pure negroes is small in comparison with the mulattoes, or descendants of Europeans crossed with negroes, and of the descendants of aborigines, Europeans, or negroes.

From the variety of climate, all the tropical plants, as well as the products of the temperate climates, will grow to perfection. In the plains of that part, formerly belonging to Spain, the heat is nearly uniform, and varies in proportion to their distance from the mountains. In the plains, the mercury in the thermometer is sometimes at 99 degrees. In the mountains it rarely rises above 72 or 77. There the nights are cool enough to render a warm blanket or covering necessary; and in the higher mountains, even a fire is agreeable in the evenings. Violent heats and heavy rains render St. Domingo humid. Metals soon tarnish, particularly on the sea-shore, which is more unhealthy than the interior parts of the island. The southern part is subject to southern gales, so called, as not being attended with such dreadful consequences as the hurricanes in the Windward Islands. The roads are little more than foot-paths, or tracks, passable only on horseback. The island is in general watered by rivers and brooks; their courses are but short, and few of them navigable to any distance. The river, which in dry weather hardly covers the pebbles on its bed, is changed by a tempestuous rain into a flood; and should the banks give way, the rivers spread in devastation over the plains. Many of the rivers are infested with alligators. Henriquelle and Salt Pond are the only bodies of water which aspire to the name of lakes.

Agriculture in Hayti has recently been so much neglected, and the products so badly prepared, that Haytien coffee is in little repute in the European markets, from the careless and slovenly way in which it is gathered; good and bad berries are mixed up with stones and dirt, to add to the weight. When properly cleaned and separated, the coffee of this island has been considered superior to any in the West Indies. This same negligence has applied of late years to her cotton, cocoa, and logwood.

Owing to the extravagant expenditure of former governments, the value of paper money and base coin in circulation in 1846 amounted to about 8,000,000 of dollars, currency; the value of each dollar of which was depreciated to one-fourth of the Spanish dollar.

Attention, not long since, was directed to a revision of that part of the constitution which forbids white men to hold property in Hayti. The most enlightened of her citizens, says Macgregor, were in favor of abolishing this restriction, as injurious to the interests of the country, and disgraceful to their laws; but it might not be prudent in the government, although they are supposed to be favorable to the naturalization of foreigners, to offend the prejudiced masses, by creating an apprehension of foreign domination.

For thirty years past, neither industry, nor improvement, nor energetic administration, nor the extension of the education of the people, nor any progress in the march of civilization, appears in the agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, moral, social, or political condition of the *quasi* Republic. The climate, the soil, and the pastures yield, almost without culture, sufficient merely to feed a people too indolent to work for comforts or luxuries. The moral aspect of St. Domingo has been decidedly bad. From its discovery by Columbus to the present reign of Solouque, the olive branch has withered under its pestilential breath; and when the atheistical philosophy of revolutionary France added fuel to the volcano of hellish passions which raged in its bosom, the horrors of the island became a narrative which frightened our childhood, and still curdles the blood to read. The triumphant negroes refined upon the tortures of the Inquisition in their treatment of prisoners taken in battle. They tore them with red hot pincers—sawed them asunder between planks—roasted them by a slow fire—or tore out their eyes with red-hot cork-screws. A negro named Jeannot was, of all their chieftains, the most ferocious. Suspecting the fidelity of a negro under his orders, who was also accused of having saved his master from the knives of the insurgents, this monster ordered that he should be cut in pieces and thrown into the fire. Other acts of cruelty still more revolting, are related of this rebel chief. The plantation of M. Paradole suffered an attack from the in-

surgents, in which the proprietor himself was made a prisoner. Four of his children, who in the first moments of their panic had fled to places of concealment, came to implore the chief to liberate their father. This filial devotion, which was interpreted as defiance by the demon black, irritated him to fury. He ordered that the four young men should be slain separately before the eyes of their parent, who was then himself put to death, the last victim in this tragedy.* We have often listened to the terrible relations of the massacre of St. Domingo, made to us by Judge Grivot, of New-Orleans, whose father also was shot before his eyes, and who escaped himself the same fate by passing for a medical student, for such they needed. He thrilled us by a tale of a noble French officer, whose life was saved by a frenzied wife, who sacrificed herself to the embraces of the commandant. But enough: the soul revolts from such pictures of *human nature* (?)

Governor Wood, of Ohio, certainly no advocate of slavery, thus speaks of his late visit to Jamaica; and we quote, in order to show that negro nature and civilization are the same everywhere:—

About ten o'clock, A. M., we came in sight of Jamaica. Mountains appeared, rising several thousand feet. On nearing the land, we took on board a black pilot, ran close in with the shore about thirty miles to Port Royal, and entered the harbor of Kingston, which is on the south side. We were close in with the land from the time we reached Jamaica until we entered the harbor. We saw many plantations, the buildings dilapidated; fields of sugar-cane half worked, and apparently poor; and nothing but that which will grow without the labor of man, appeared luxuriant and flourishing. The island itself is of great fertility, one of the best of the Antilles; but all the large estates upon it are now fast going to ruin. In the harbor were not a dozen ships of all nations; no business was doing, and everything you heard spoken was in the language of complaint. Since the blacks have been liberated they have become indolent, insolent, degraded, and dishonest. They are a rude, beastly set of vagabonds, lying naked about the street, as filthy as the Hotentots, and I believe worse.

On getting to the wharf, the first thing, the blacks of both sexes, in great numbers, perfectly naked, came swimming about the boat, and would dive for small pieces of coin that were thrown them by the passengers. These they would catch in the water or pick from the bottom. They never fail, though the water is twenty feet deep.

The harbor of Kingston is spacious and secure. The city is old, and in ruins. On entering it, the stranger is annoyed to death by the black beggars at every step, and you must often show them your pistols or an uplifted cane, to rid yourself of their importunities.

We were here twenty-four hours, took in 400 tons of coal, which was all brought on board by black women in rags, in tubs carried on their heads.

The whites are very civil and courteous. They seem delighted to see Americans, say the island is ruined by legislation and the neglect of the home government, and most of them are desirous of getting away.

I hope the abolition of slavery everywhere will not be attended with the same consequences that it is in Jamaica—to ruin both black and white; but no one visits Jamaica without the most thorough conviction that the liberation of the slave has spoiled him and ruined his master. I have, however, time for no more comments on the subject.

* Brown's History of St. Domingo.

But as some evidence of progressing civilization, Faustin has sent to the New-York Crystal Palace specimens of Haytien production, consisting of a quantity of chocolate nuts, the fruit of the *brama cacao*; also of *ricinus communis*, or Palma Christi, commonly called the castor bean, which is extensively cultivated in the United States. He moreover contributes specimens of mahogany, the bark of *lagetta lintearia*, or lace bark tree, rosewood, pepperwood, various kinds of coffee, &c., &c.

The government of the island is historically non-descript. Its most appropriate term might be that of a military despotism. Such has it been always in substance, and Faustin's elevation was owing as much to a *coup d'etat* as that of the third Napoleon. This accounts for the miserable condition of a country, more naturally fertile, perhaps, than our best prairies. The troops of Hayti number near fifty thousand samples of African janizaries, half citizen and half soldier. They follow the standards of their respective regiments, and constitute the garrisons of the different towns in peace, and are concentrated to form the national army in war. They receive from the treasury a coat a year, and a shako or cap, every two years. Shoes, shirts, &c., they pick up when and where they can. In fact, Falstaff's ragged regiment is their model. They are paid from the national fund a sum which varies from half a dollar to one dollar a month, according to the state of the exchequer. They were reviewed on Saturdays and Sundays in Boyer's time, and doubtless Solouque parades his *grande armée* full as often now. The whole matter of government is a farce, worthy only of a village theatre, and tends more to throw royalty into contempt than anything we are at present aware of.

The religion, or pretence for religion, of St. Domingo, is according to the Roman Catholic formula—its forms without its vitality. They intermix the legitimate ritual of the Catholic faith with the mysterious adoration paid to their national fetishes, and the African Obi and the Catholic Priest both come in for a share of their respect and homage; or, rather, of the homage of the females of the island, for the males show an utter contempt for all religious exercises. They are literally a nation sitting in darkness, and worthy of missionary enterprise.

The judiciary, although ostensibly based upon the best modern foundation of jurisprudence—the code Napoleon—is just such as we might expect from heterogeneous ignorance and stupidity. To illustrate it, we will cite a humorous anecdote from Brown.* He says:—"An inferior magistrate made a better decision than that of Solomon, if the latter had been executed according to the strictly literal interpretation of the king's order. Some trespass had been committed upon the premises of a neighbor,

*History of St. Domingo.

by the intrusions of a pig. But the case upon its trial was so imperfectly made out, and the pig so ably defended, that the affair was clearly beyond the legal sagacity of the judge, and he could not for the life of him decide as to the human parties in the case. To extricate himself from so great a perplexity he ordered that the arm of the law should fall *upon the pig*, which was ordered off to prison to expiate the offence it had committed."

But, said the great Sully, minister to Henry IV, "pasturage and tillage are the two nurses of the State," and we must therefore judge of the tree by its fruit. By this judgment Hayti appears to be in a woful condition to what it was under French masters. As far back as 1791, it exported double the quantity of coffee it did in 1822, and three hundred times the quantity of sugar! Since then we have the following statistics:

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Year.	Exports.	Imports.
1836.....	\$1,240,039.....	\$1,828,019.....	1841.....	\$1,555,557.....	\$1,809,684
1837.....	1,011,981.....	1,440,856.....	1842.....	899,966.....	1,266,997
1838.....	910,255.....	1,275,762.....	1843.....	653,370.....	898,447
1839.....	1,122,559.....	1,377,989.....	1844.....	1,128,356.....	1,441,244
1840.....	1,027,214.....	1,252,824.....	1845.....	1,405,749.....	1,386,367
			1852.....	1,718,903.....	1,870,672

In some future number we shall trace the policy and character of the Haytien rule to the present time, and the phase it assumes under British policy in the West Indies.

Art. V.—CLARK MILLS AND HIS EQUESTRIAN STATUE.

[We have omitted, from the interesting paper furnished us upon Clark Mills, that portion which treats of his early life as a common plasterer, in Charleston, S. C., of his poverty and trials, and of his first essays in forming plaster busts, under the instruction of a strolling Italian image seller. These busts being noted for their correctness, he was induced to take a shop, &c., &c. The subsequent experience of Mills is given in the article.—*Ed.*]

"MILLS! who took that bust?"

"I did," he modestly replied.

"You did!" said the people. "Why, where did you learn the art?"

"I learned it myself," said Mills.

"Indeed! then you must be encouraged," added a man of means. "You must hire a larger place, and go ahead." The poor artist acted on this suggestion, as well as he was able. He hired a more convenient room in the rear of the Charleston guard-house, and plied the study of his talents.

* * * * *

At length Dr. T. Y. Simmons, one of the most popular and wealthy of the physicians of Charleston, called upon him, and requested that his bust might be taken. His head and features

were of that marked character which caused him to be universally recognised among the Charlestonians. Mills made the trial; and it resulted in triumphant success. All who saw it praised it in the highest terms; and "the good physician" himself, as he ordered it sent to his mansion, turned to the artist and said,

"Mills! lay down the trowel."

And Mills did lay the trowel down. He hired a still better shop, and prepared himself for other, and still better works.

It was not long after this period that the great American statesman, John Caldwell Calhoun, called upon Mills. With that intuition which so distinguished the intellect of that extraordinary man, Mr. Calhoun saw at a glance the genius and the future of the struggling American artist. With all a father's affection, with all a strong man's confidence, he took him by the hand. He consented at once to sit for his bust, and cheered on Mills, as he labored with the difficulties of artistic outset, with many words of kindness. It was a moment of intense interest with him. He summoned up every power of his genius, and bent his whole being to the task. It was a complete triumph! The head, with its erect form and bristling locks; the eye, with its deep caverns of thought; the lip, with its compression of firmness; the chin, with its set indication of energy; all was complete, perfect, triumphant.

What an hour for the back-woods wheelwright boy, for the sweating plasterer, the exhibiter of the bear and the dog, and the unknown sprinkler of dusty avenues!

Such are some of the struggles of genius.

The plaster bust of Mr. Calhoun was so successful a work of art that his friends desired it might be preserved in marble. Now came a new and a sterner test of the genius of Mills. He had triumphed with the mould and the plaster, but could he triumph with the chisel and the rock? That was the question of his whole mind. He had never taken the implements of the marble sculptor in his unpractised hands. He knew nothing whatever of the rules of sculpture.

"Can I succeed in this difficult task?" he asked himself. And the answer came from within—I will try.

Procuring the best block of Carolina marble that could be obtained, he sat down before it. There it was, all untooled and unlined—a rough cold stone from the hills of the Palmetto. Could he carve it? Could he cause it to seem to speak with the lofty lineaments of the man of the south? Could he chisel out from that unhewn rock the frontlets of that iron brow? Could he cut the expression of life for those large and lustrous, and piercing eyes? Could he shape the compressed sternness of those lips, and the firm set dignity of that chin? Could he (in

some respects the most difficult work of the sculptor) construct and adjust those wiry locks of hair, so that they should stand up, as was their wont, on the temples and crown of that majestic head?

And the answer came back again from his spirit—"I will try." He tried; and he did it all. Calhoun, in the serene greatness of his intellect, stood before him. So unerring, so perfectly life-like was the bust of marble, that it was viewed with grateful pleasure by the distinguished statesman, and with enthusiastic delight by all his friends. The City Council of Charleston voted a rich gold medal to Mills, and placed this splendid triumph of his genius in the principal public building.

Orders for busts, and works of marble and plaster, now poured in upon our artist. His humble shop became the centre of attraction to many admirers of art.

While busy at his work, one day, his sleeves rolled up to the elbows, and the materials of his toil scattered around him, a gentleman dropped in, and accosted him thus:

"Mills! how would you like to go to Italy?"

"Go to Italy! What do you mean?"

"I mean—would you be willing to go abroad, and study the old masters, if you could?"

"Willing? Ah! my dear sir! don't ask such a question of a man situated as I am."

"Why not?"

"Why, because of all things in this world, I should love to go to Italy; but how can I go, when I have no means?"

"If that is all," added the friendly visitor, "make yourself easy. The means will be provided, and you can go to Italy."

The delight of poor Mills at this announcement can be better imagined than described. He turned from his work, and sprang to the side of the gentleman, looking intently in his face for a further explanation.

"Yes, Mills," resumed his gratified friend, "it is all fixed that you are to go abroad. A few of us here in Charleston have made up the necessary sum for sending you, and I have been deputed to inform you of the fact."

The enthusiasm of the artist now began to find vent. Without waiting to put on his coat, he rushed into the street, hailing each acquaintance that he met.

"Have you heard the news? I'm going to Italy; going to study the old masters!"

"Going where?" said one, not exactly comprehending the coatless and bare-headed genius.

"Going to Italy, I tell you! Going to study the old masters of art! Do you hear that? I'm going to the land of sculpture, and painting, and song?"

"Wa'll, go along, then," muttered a stoical passer-by, who doubtless thought of Mills as he had seen him on his water-cart, "Go along, who cares?"

Mills cared; and his true friends cared with him. In a short time he was on his way to New-York, with a view of embarking thence for the classic shades of Rome. Passing through Washington, and tarrying in the capital city for a few days to observe its works of art, (works few indeed for the credit of the country), he was requested by the Hon. W. C. Preston, of S. C., to take for him a bust of the Hon. Daniel Webster, and another of the Hon. John J. Crittenden.

While engaged on Webster's bust, the fame of that of Calhoun having reached Washington, he was waited upon by a committee of the Jackson Monument Association. These gentlemen asked of him a design of an equestrian statue, which he gave them, and which was the basis of that splendid national work of art, unquestionably the first of its kind in the world.

Mr. Mills now abandoned the idea of going abroad. It was believed by the artist and his friends (and is believed so now) that it was due to his genius that he should remain in America. He could not do more if he were to study the ancient works of art, than to perfect himself as their copyist. And wherein does their great excellence consist? In the perfect imitations of nature. Why, then, may not Mills study nature directly himself? And where can he find her in greater perfection than on the American Continent? Where does the sun rise or set in greater majesty or beauty than here? Where are the moon-lit nights more beautiful? Where are the thunder storms more sublime? Where are the lakes broader, the rivers longer, the mountains grander, the prairies wider? Where is there a better race of men and women; and where have there been nobler deeds performed than here?

Why, then, should Clark Mills go to Italy, or Germany, or France, or England, or anywhere else, since the birth-place and home of his genius, since the incentives to his art and the monuments of his skill, are in America?

It is presumed that Mr. Mills may yet go abroad on a professional tour—by no means, however as a copyist or imitator—to study nature as she appears in her walks of beauty and grandeur through other lands; to catch her lineaments from the summits of her distant mountains, to retrace her lively image as it glows in the lustre of far-off waters; to picture her plumage as she spreads her wings of morning, and over other skies. With these new and varied sketches in the records of his mind, he will return to the grateful land that gave him birth, here to create fresh works of American art, to throw more brilliant

halos around American deeds, and to add brighter pages to American history.

Mills re-visited Charleston, made honorable arrangements with his kind patrons there, and returned to Washington, where he has remained several years constantly employed in completing his monument to Jackson.

In the prosecution of this great work, everything was new. Obtaining from the government a small patch of ground adjacent to the executive mansion, he put up his little shanty buildings of scantling and unplained boards, mingled with rough brick walls and coverings of canvass. He dug out his pits and put up his machinery for his foundry and mouldings. Much of the time he worked with his own hands; and being much cramped for room and means, he constructed his furnaces on a principle entirely original with him, so as to make the greatest possible saving of space and fuel. Day and night, for more than four years, he plied himself to his arduous task—the designing, moulding, casting, polishing and erecting a bronze equestrian statue, such as the world had never seen before.

The great idea of that statue, of the rearing war-horse and the mounted hero, never forsook him. Go where he would, occupy himself as he might, it was constantly before him. It was ever present in his scenes of toil, and often visited his dreams in the silent watches of the night. The whole thing was original. He knew nothing practically of the business of casting in iron or brass. He had never seen an equestrian statue in his life. He had never studied anatomy, or physiology, or the laws of gravitation. But the grand idea, the controlling purpose, the self-confidence peculiar to real genius, urged him on in the work, and crowned him with success and fame.

He knew and felt that he had done all he attempted to do with his busts of plaster and marble. But could he succeed in bronze? Could he rear his ideal figures of a colossal horse and rider? There were the old, battered brass cannon in that narrow yard. There was his toppling shanty furnace and foundry. There were the moulds, and the plaster for the casts. And there, most of all, in the living mind of the artist, was the living thought.

Yet, again came back the response from the innermost depths of his spirit—"I will try." Quietly, all unnoticed by the busy crowd, he seated himself to his stupendous achievement, and drew his plan. This done, patiently and perseveringly he took up all the details, one by one, and adapted his genius to the work before him. He studied, carefully and closely, the various and wonderful anatomy of men and horses. He formed portions of arms, legs, eyes, ears, locks of hair, hoofs, feet, hands,

bones, nerves, and flesh. He created a piece of work one day, that, to the common eye, seemed perfect, but which, not suiting his fine perceptions of art, he destroyed it on the morrow. His little studio was like an artistic Golgotha—a place of skulls, and plaster bones and metallic remains. Heads of men, and tails of horses fell before his keen sense of the beautiful and true, like grass before the scythe of the mower; or, to use a more feeling simile, like decapitated office-losers, before the guillotine of a party in power.

The rearing position of the horse of Mills is what constitutes one of its chief attractions. To attain this wonderful desideratum was the great study of our artist. He procured a large American gelding, such an one as Jackson might have rode at a review of the American troops prior to the battle of New-Orleans. Leading the animal into his premises, he taught him, by a long series of well-managed experiments, to rear and sustain himself, balanced on his hind legs. The obedient horse became so skilfully trained to his task, that at the approach of his master, and the mere lifting of the finger, he would commence jumping and rearing, until he could throw himself back on his haunches, and remain balanced in the air! In one of those positions Mills sketched him. From that sketch he made his cast. From that cast he moulded his bronze, as the statue appears to-day.

Such is the triumph of genius.

The equestrian statues of Peter and Frederick the Great, are both supported, in part, by the weapons of the riders, and the harnesses of the horses, together with other war-like adjuncts. The equestrian statues to Wellington, in Scotland and England, (the latter quite recently put up,) are principally supported by their tails. But this statue of Jackson, by Mills, sustains itself. The horse rears, as if in the act of springing from the pedestal—self-supported, self-poised, bearing its gallant rider onward to the charge; or, as if sharing in the salute which induces the old hero to lift his cap from his brow.

The inauguration of the statue took place on the eighth of January, 1852, the anniversary of the battle of New-Orleans. The scene is thus described by a gentleman of the South, who has for a long time taken a deep personal interest in the affairs of Mr. Mills:—

"The day was bright and beautiful. In the presence of the President of the United States, the Commander-in-Chief of the Army, both Houses of Congress, the Judges of the Supreme Court, many of the personal friends of the old hero, and twenty thousand people, the artist had the proud satisfaction of seeing this monument of his genius and toil, received with applauding admiration."

After the oration of Senator Douglas was concluded, Mr. Mills was introduced to the audience of assembled thousands. As he came forward on the platform he raised his hand to the statue, as a signal for the canvass curtain which covered it, to be let fall. The covering fell, and in an instant the horse and his rider were revealed to view! That was the only speech Mills could make in response to the enthusiastic plaudits of his countrymen.

It was the moment of his life. The genius that had inspired him again appeared to his view, holding a crown of laurel over his head. He had listened to the promptings of genius, and followed nature—and his reward was fame. Well does he deserve it."*

But the work which Mills considers destined to be the great work of his life is his contemplated equestrian statue of Washington. To this he is summoning up all the best energies of his genius, enlightened and disciplined by his past experience. It is his constant, his all-engrossing study. He seems to think of nothing else. The idea of the august father of our country, mounted on an American steed, in a manner becoming his character, is his perpetual companion. For the next six or eight years—perhaps longer—the colossal structure will be ever before his mind. Rising up and sitting down, coming in and going out, at home and abroad, Washington is his theme, his study, his labor and enjoyment.

In a recent conversation with the writer of this article, the artist exclaimed, "When my statue of Washington is done, I shall be willing to die!"

It is the design of Mr. Mills to erect this statue on a pedestal at least one hundred feet high. His present idea is to present Washington as he appeared on horseback, in Revolutionary uniform, at the moment of ascending the banks of the Delaware,

* Within a short time past, Mr. Mills has made a trip to the western forests, in company with one or two friends, and returned with a very valuable addition to his studio. He has long cherished the idea which this expedition has thus enabled him to carry out.

The addition consists of a buffalo, elks, and wild horses, which he intends to group in statuary of marble, iron, or bronze. The size is to be colossal, and the figures will embrace two Indians mounted on wild horses, in native costume, at the exciting moments of the capture of a buffalo.

This is a truly American idea, and is well worthy of the American genius of Mills. It is in this way that the enthusiasm of our people will be aroused. Such a group as he is competent to rear, placed in some one of the large public squares of Washington, would inspire a love of the arts in every American capable of appreciating true native genius.

Mr. Mills has quite recently procured a fine spot of ground, near the junction of the Potomac and Anacostia rivers. The situation is one of the most convenient, and yet romantic and beautiful that the country affords. Here he proposes to lay out his works on a large and permanent scale, and inaugurate his American School of Sculpture and Design.

just previous to the battle of Trenton. The right arm of the Chief is to be extended, as if pointing his surrounding officers and soldiers to the scene of the expected conflict; while his head is slightly turned around, as if by his looks, to animate those who are nearest his person. The horse is to be in the attitude of motion; but not rearing, not rampant, like the steed of Jackson.

Some conception of the colossal size of the horse, and consequently of the rider, may be formed by the fact that the head of the animal is to be ten feet long. What must the horse be, when only the head is of that length? How towering and majestic, how correspondent with his world-wide fame, must be the erect figure of Washington!

It is proposed by Mr. Mills to place this magnificent structure in the centre of Pennsylvania Avenue, about equi-distant from the President's House and the Halls of Congress. The grounds now occupied by the market-house and other buildings in that spot, are to be laid out for the purpose, with appropriate walks, parks, fountains, and fences.

This great national statue, thus placed, will be seen from both ends of the avenue, from the Smithsonian Institute, the General Post and Patent Offices; and being of sufficient height, it will tower above the surrounding hotels, dwellings, and stores, and be observed at once by persons approaching in any direction to the Capital City. Above the roofs of the people, above the dome of the Houses of Congress, this great American statue will stand on high—a monument alike of the gratitude and love of our country, and of the genius and fame of Clark Mills.*

* There have been but few public criticisms of the statue. Mr. Thackeray, the English author and travelling lecturer, is understood to have made some strictures on the work, during his brief stay in Washington in the winter of 1852-'53. They were replied to in the *Evening Star*, of Washington, and subsequently retracted by Mr. Thackeray, at the close of one of his lectures.

In the June number of *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, for 1853, an anonymous letter-writer, dating from Washington, attempts some foreign witticisms on the color of the bronze, and the poised position of the horse; but they are such signal failures in the way of artistic criticism as to be worthy of but a moment's notice.

Every intelligent observer knows that the yellow hue of the statue is owing to the nature of the metal from which it is cast—the brass cannon taken in American victories. But this critic, in *Harper's*, shows his ignorance of art by comparing the statue, as to its color, with the bronzed vases on each side—overlooking the very significant fact that they are *painted*! This is a fair sample of the futile attempts of would-be critics to injure our American artist and his splendid monument of genius.

Another anonymous writer appears in the *N. Y. Tribune*, (a violent party newspaper,) of July 16, 1853, who meanly attacks the statue, under cover of a review of the Exhibition at the Crystal Palace. In a small building adjacent to the Palace, Mr. Mills has placed a model of his statue, by order of the managers of the exhibition; and this is what the *Tribune* assails.

The tremendous force of this pretended criticism may be realized by the fact that the critic finds these two—and only these—grounds of attack: First, the statue was made by a young American mechanic! Second, the horse stands self-

ART. VI.—SOUTHERN SLAVERY AND ITS ASSAILANTS.

THE KEY TO UNCLE TOM'S CABIN—AGAIN.

FROM Mrs. Stowe bringing in such "advertisements" as she does in evidence, we should not be surprised next to find her adducing some of the extravagance and reprehensible nonsense we have heard Southerners at the North talk, for the purpose of amusing themselves by the horrified looks of their audience. The man who told Mrs. Stowe's brother that his fist had been hardened "knocking down niggers," was assuredly quizzing him; but the note made of this case should admonish all foolish young persons from the South of the danger of jesting about so serious a subject as this has become.

A legal friend, at the request of the writer, procured for her all the law papers referred to in Mrs. Stowe's Key, and pointed out the passages she wished for her purpose. The writer has been glad to find, by the sanction given by a lawyer to the interpretation she has placed on these laws, that, after all, the law was not so misty a subject, but that a little plain common sense would suffice in its investigation.

Having, as we think, exposed the ridiculously unwarranted interpretation put by Mrs. Stowe on the protective acts, and having shown, as we think, that they were not made solely to deceive the world and lull our conscience with the idea that we do intend to treat our slaves humanely, the question arises, if these liberal and enlightened Southerners are the friends of the slave, does Mrs. Stowe misrepresent them in saying they have left the protective acts incomplete, and permitted them to be inefficient; and if so, how is this reconcilable with the good intentions imputed to them? And first, are her premises correct? That the slave code, like most other human enactments, is in some degree imperfect, must be admitted. To say exactly how far it is so, would be assuming to be very wise. Probably we should differ among ourselves as to the benefit to be derived from any proposed additions; and did we agree, would require to test them by experience before we could decide upon them. Pro-

poised on his hind legs! This is another fair specimen of the ebullitions of envy and malice our artist has had to encounter. The readers of this *Review* will at once stamp such coin with the marks it deserves.

In conclusion, we are happy to be able to state, that since this article was prepared, Mr. Mills has received an order for an equestrian statue of Jackson, to be erected by the city government in New-Orleans, at an expense of \$30,000. He has procured and entered upon extensive grounds in the vicinity of Washington, where he will prosecute to perfection the great works of art he has for years had in contemplation.

bably, however, most enlightened and humane Southerners would wish for laws preventing the separation of families. Almost every notice by a Southerner of Mrs. Stowe's Key, which we have seen, admits this to be a desirable alteration. That the execution of this code is inefficient, cannot be denied; while Mrs. Stowe can adduce the case of such a man as Souther escaping the retribution it positively requires. While her book contains such records as that fairly proven against us, we will not attempt to stultify ourselves and imitate the editors of petty newspapers, who write editorials in which they denounce Mrs. Stowe's book as a collection of utter falsehoods, and imagine they have written a powerful counterblast assertion. Violent language is not argument, and we should lay down our pen in despair, and give up the cause, were we reduced to use it; for this case is argued before a world who is aware that such substitutes are usually the resources of those who have nothing better to offer. We have been forcibly reminded by the efforts of some of our countrymen to defend themselves against this book, of a saying of Bishop Hobart, "that there is no more certain way of ruining a good cause, than by procuring it a bad defender." That slaves are murdered, and the murderer escapes, is not answered, by the plea that people are murdered in all countries, and the murderer sometimes escapes. A New-Zealander or a Patagonian might make use of just such a plea, to excuse murders in either of their countries. The real question is, do we manifest, and as far as we are able, carry out a disposition to punish such things? Until Mrs. Stowe's day, probably all but very violent abolitionists gave us credit for endeavoring to be lenient towards the negro, in the slavery entailed upon us. Mrs. Stowe says, as a people we sanction and enforce injustice. She professes to make a distinction between us and the system; but while she makes it optional with us to retain slavery, she charges the inhumanity home upon us. Perhaps the world was the more ready to believe her conclusion drawn from her premises fairly, because the amount of inhumanity unveiled was greater than it had imagined, and besides it was not at hand to see the actual working which proves the premises do not warrant that conclusion.

Why is it, then, that this class of Southerners, of whom we have spoken, are silent, when little children are torn from their parents, or men like Souther escape full retribution? The answer to this question lies deep in the nature of things. While it is the just boast of a free government, that by the natural order of things in it, the educated and enlightened are the leaders of the masses, and laws originate with them, still there is a large class of the uneducated and unenlighted, who are capable of being excited

and wrought upon, so as to change this natural order of things, and completely to nullify the efforts of friends of order and justice. It is frequently some attempted act of violence to the laws of the country, which inflames this mass, and causes them to commit great injustice on the other side; for this multitude, when excited, never take a moderate course, or see both sides of a question at once. As an illustration of our meaning, and a case in many respects similar to the one now enacted at the South on the subject of abolition, we will take the agitation on the subject of Popery, which through a long period inflamed the people of England. It was caused, in a great measure, by the unjust efforts of James II. to establish the Roman Catholic religion; and just as abolitionists, by attempting to overturn the necessary laws of our country, and abolish slavery, have caused great inhumanity to those they so wrongly sought to benefit, so James II. undoubtedly caused great wrong to be done to unfortunate Romanists. Readers of Macaulay and other historians will remember the account given of Titus Oates' plot. Macaulay says, that sensible Protestants believed all along that Oates' statements were falsehoods, but were overawed by the violence of the masses, which led them to suspect of popery any one who attempted to do Romanists justice. Now what had wrought up that multitude? The fact that a similar plot had actually been organized in the days of James I. So great and so violent was the agitation, that many reigns elapsed, after all danger to the liberties of England from the efforts of Romanists had ceased, before this violence was sufficiently quelled, for the friends of justice and liberality to propose the undoubtedly just measure of Roman Catholic emancipation. That unenlightened Southerners are inhumane, or, when unexcited, would confound humanity with abolition, is no more true than that the English populace is unjust, and when unexcited, would confound a simple act of justice to Roman Catholic subjects with an effort to establish the Roman Catholic religion in England. They are to blame who put humanity and justice at a discount, by always painting them in company with such attempts. The people would, in both cases, have listened to the liberal and humane, in the cause of humanity and justice, had there not been such constant efforts to excite their minds.

In a chapter headed "*poor white trash*," Mrs. Stowe represents slavery as causing a condition among poor whites which forms materials for the worst of mobs. As far as the masses and mobs and mob law are concerned, apart from the influence of abolitionists, it rests with Mrs. Stowe to prove that our population is more easily aroused than in other countries. The cause of vigilance committees were the violations of law by abolition committees, and their violations of it, or the violations by mobs at

the South, can be abundantly matched at the North and everywhere else. To apply Mrs. Stowe's anecdote about the burning of heretics, the question seems to be, not whether law shall be violated, but *who* shall violate it. Mrs. Stowe has written a book, filled with abuse of a law, which she makes no effort whatever to prove unconstitutional, and the violation of which therefore must be a crime. We can overlook this, until almost in the next breath she stands forth as the vehement advocate of law and order. This is a little too absurd. It is too great a presumption in her to talk of the violation of law by southern mobs. Does she plead the higher law? So might they plead the higher law, which bids them prevent insurrection, and the most fearful of evils to their country. Not that we defend violations of law. No, indeed: when we unfurl the banner of law and order, we mean to be perfectly consistent, and defend no violations of it on any side. The horrors of mobs and mob law are too well known everywhere; and for Mrs. Stowe to attribute them peculiarly to us, is only part of her system to attribute to the influence of slavery every evil which we southerners inherit in common with all men, from the condition of being human and so imperfect. Who doubts that at the South, slavery has removed from southern mobs one fearful element, which might have given a far worse type of malignancy than she attributes to them? She speaks of the condition of poor whites as the result of slavery. Undoubtedly there may be evils resulting from the necessity of a large negro population, evils perhaps to poor white people; but emancipation would not remedy them, unless it rid us of the negro. And to attribute the existence of those evils to the slavery which modifies and restrains them, is shamefully unfair. Here, we think, Mrs. Stowe manifests a disposition to play the demagogue, by arousing the poor against the rich. Mrs. Stowe says, slaveholders keep these masses as dogs are kept, to be goaded on by the cry of abolition. If there never had been such a thing as abolition, there had been no such battle-cry to arouse them. She speaks of Senator Hoar's visit to South Carolina, and thinks we must feel ashamed of it. Suppose a Roman Catholic were to reproach an Englishman with the death of the victims of Titus Oates' falsehoods. We imagine he would reply, if there never had been a Gunpowder Plot, there never would have been a pretended Popish Plot; and so we reply, if Massachusetts people never had meddled with our institutions, Mr. Hoar never would have been suspected of wishing to do so. That slaveholders, as a class, especially the enlightened among them, have ever made use of these masses, is false. It would be about as absurd as to say that enlightened and honest Protestants, the precursors of those who waited until the agitation had ceased, before they could be heard in favor of Roman

Catholic disfranchisement from political disabilities, systematically roused the populace to the riots, headed by Lord George Gordon, or to believe in Titus Oates' impostures. The writer has always lived in a slave state, and has never heard one of this class speak otherwise than with regret of the excitements which drown the voice of justice, and it is their feeling all over the southern country. The time was, before the world had such fearful lessons of rousing these inflammable elements, that those who did so could plead good intentions; but the thing is now so plain from history, that he who runs may read, and they who do so must bear the sin of having wilfully closed their eyes to its teachings. "Judgment is turned away backward, and justice standeth afar off, and he who departeth from evil doth make himself a prey;" and it is Mrs. Stowe who has strangely helped to do it. The influence of her book at the South is evil, and evil only. As far as she is fair in her revelation of injustice, she tells these enlightened slaveholders nothing. They know and would remedy these things already. They do not say much, because they see it is the clamor of talkers, which has prevented justice being done ere this. They do sigh for the poor negro, ground between the upper and nether millstone of abolition excitement, and pro-slavery excitement, while the noise prevents their voices from being heard, if they spoke for him.

Mrs. Stowe represents us as trying to stop the discussion of slavery. The question has been discussed, and we have made up our minds about it; and because our decision does not suit abolitionists, they clamor that we wish to restrain the discussion. The history of the Southern States, since the revolution, embodies the history of that discussion, and its results; and in it we can directly trace this influence of abolition of which we have spoken. For the colonial enactments of the Slave Code, which are marked by great severity, the British government must be held responsible; for the governor and council, or upper house of the legislature which enacted them, were appointed directly by the king; while the lower house was influenced by him, by his power of appointing tests of eligibility to office in it. The acts punishing a white man who murdered a negro by disfranchisement and fine only, and so designed chiefly for the benefit of masters, passed in South Carolina in 1740, and in North Carolina, in 1774, (Mrs. Stowe's Key). The fifteen-hour work rule in South Carolina, so ridiculed by Mrs. Stowe, was passed 1740, (Key). In Georgia, in Hotchkiss's Statute Book, we find acts punishing by death, for the second offence, a negro who struck a white person; acts preventing free negroes and slaves from renting houses, and prohibiting the meetings of negroes, all dated 1740. When our English

brethren are horrified at Mrs. Stowe's account of the Slave Code, they would do well to recollect their own government laid the foundation of it, in greater severity than any of the acts of our legislatures. When Mrs. Stowe calls upon Englishmen to mock at southern justice, because in Mississippi, in the nineteenth century, it has been "triumphantly made to appear that the slave is a human being," we would remind them, that the fact that it can be at all argued that he is not, arises from the savage spirit of the colonial code, bequeathed to us by the British government, and that it can be triumphantly made to appear that he is, arises from our own more humane enactments modifying that code. And yet, she says she does not confound us with the system. She must think us extremely gullible. About the time of our revolution, by Mrs. Stowe's own showing, great moderation of opinion prevailed at the South, and by permitting the expression of the most extreme opinions, we gave evidence of considering the subject an open one. The opinions of Washington, Jefferson, and Patrick Henry, as quoted by Mrs. Stowe, evidence this. Evidently, some of us thought, in the first flush of our freedom, that all men were fitted for republican government. France and Mexico have since taught us that even some highly civilized white races are not. It was during this period of moderation, that most of the slave states placed the murder of a white man and a negro on the same footing. The State of Georgia, on the adoption of the Constitution in 1798, expressed her view of this subject by putting it on the strong ground of *constitutional enactment*, that "the person who shall wilfully dismember, or deprive of life any slave, shall suffer the same punishment as would be inflicted in case the like offence had been committed on the same white person, and on like proof," &c. That our ancestors did not thoroughly revise the old colonial code, and test the extreme point to which leniency is consistent with slavery, appears to result from their considering emancipation an open question. That we did permit the discussion, appears, on Mrs. Stowe's showing, from the fact that the Methodist denomination, in 1784, and the Presbyterian in 1818, adopted views in their formularies which were the quintessence of abolition; and it not only did not cause separation, but seems to have caused no remonstrance from the southern branches of those religious bodies. The ordinance of 1787, whose adoption essentially in the Wilmot Proviso nearly dissolved the Union, passed without disturbance. At one time, (*vide Key*,) the States of Kentucky, Virginia, and Maryland, came very near abolishing slavery. Doubtless the perpetual irritation engendered by abolitionists, in enticing fugitive slaves from these border states, helped somewhat to incline them to the decision of the danger of emancipation.

Mrs. Stowe gives an anecdote of the Columbian Orator and

Fred. Douglass. The fact that a school book was once tolerated, containing a dialogue between master and slave, on emancipation, which is made to terminate in the slave's convincing his master, and obtaining freedom from him, proves that we have tolerated discussion. The book was in truth almost the only book of speeches for school-boys, used at the South for a long period, and the writer well remembers, when a child, finding among old books in a closet, a copy of this very *Columbian Orator*, which bore dog-eared traces of a whole generation of uncles, who had successively conned it. The books now used, by the descendants of those who studied the *Columbian Orator*, show plainly that a great change has come over public opinion. They contain speeches against abolition. The writer has frequently heard persons in Georgia, not over fifty years of age, say they remembered when at school-boy examinations, speeches against slavery were not uncommon, and it was a frequent subject of discussion in school-boy debating societies. The same persons recollect frequently to have heard people wish there never had been a slave in the country; and also relate, that some popular clergymen of the day never concealed the scruples which prevented their owning slaves. A friend who lives in one of the largest slaveholding counties in Georgia, procured for the writer the following lines, which many years ago were long given as a standing Fourth of July toast, by a slaveholder, owning more than a hundred slaves:

Health to the sick, honor to the brave,
Success to the lover, freedom to the slave.

Sufficient proof, we think, has been given that we have permitted the discussion. Let us now consider the influence our northern brethren have had on the discussion. In *Garland's Life of John Randolph*, of Roanoke, vol. 2, page 133, Randolph, who all his life was in favor of emancipation, and did finally emancipate his own slaves, says, "These Yankees have almost reconciled me to slavery. They have produced a revulsion even on my mind; what then must be the effect on those who had no scruples on the subject? I am persuaded, that the cause of humanity to these unfortunates has been put back a century, certainly a generation, by the unprincipled conduct of ambitious men." That the spirit of abolitionism at the North has grown with the growth of our country, is notorious. The first spirit of intermeddling politically with our institutions began in the time of the Missouri Compromise, in 1819, '20, and '21. It mingled with the tariff question in 1830, '31, and '32, making every one fear a dissolution of the Union, until at the time of the admission of Texas and California into the United States, we see a great increase of its violence.

Mrs. Stowe gives us a history of the different actions of the Presbyterian denomination, on the subject of slavery, from which we can gather indications of the relative increase of abolition and pro-slavery sentiments. In 1818, according to Mrs. Stowe, (Key, p. 213,) the Assembly states that the most virtuous portion of the community, in slave states, abhor slavery, and wish its extermination. In 1836 the General Assembly refused to act upon the subject at all, (Key, pp. 209-210). In 1838, the separation into Old School and New School took place, the Old School being chiefly pro-slavery, while the New School contained but three slaveholding presbyteries. The Old School affirmed in 1845, that the General Assembly had been organized upon the conceded principle, that slavery was no bar to Christian communion, (Key, p. 211). The New School, composed chiefly of anti-slavery men, in 1839, referred the subject of slavery to lower judicatories, and in 1846 re-affirmed the decision, though the Assembly "states with regret, slavery is still countenanced and continued by many members of our churches," (Key, p. 213). Mrs. Stowe says, (Key, p. 213), "when a boat is imperceptibly going down stream on a gentle, but strong current, we can see its passage only by comparing objects with each other on the shore." She adds, "the testimony of 1818 has the frank, outspoken air of an unanimous document, where there was but one opinion;—that of 1846 has the guarded air of a compromise, ground out between the upper and nether millstones of two contending factions; it is winnowed, guarded, cautious, careful" (Key, p. 213). In 1846, the New School Assembly showed it did not consider pro-slavery doctrines heresy, by inviting the Old School Assembly to celebrate the Lord's Supper with them, (Key, p. 215). In 1850, (Key, p. 215), they avow themselves ready to meet any overtures of re-union to be made to them by the Old School body. This was about the time of the abolition agitation, when California was admitted, and the next time the General Assembly met, they decided not to take any action on the subject of slavery. The strong ground taken by the Methodist Conference at the beginning in 1784 has already been noticed. In 1840 the General Conference of the Methodist denomination passed the following resolution:—"That it is inexpedient and unjustifiable, for any preacher to permit colored persons to give testimony against white persons, in any of the states where they are denied that privilege by law," (Key, p. 196). Mrs. Stowe thus comments upon all these facts—"The history of the Presbyterian Church, and the history of our United States, have strong points of similarity. In both, at the outset, the strong influence was anti-slavery, even among slaveholders. In both, there was no difference of opinion as to the desirableness of abolishing slavery ultimately—both made a con-

cession, the smallest which could possibly be imagined—both made the concession, in all good faith, contemplating the speedy removal and extinction of the evil, and the history of both is alike. The little point of concession spread and abolished and acquired from year to year, until the United States and the Presbyterian Church stand just where they do. Worse has been the history of the Methodist Church; and the history of the Baptist Church shows the same principle." On page 217, she adds, "*the slave power has the victory.*" All this time the history of the country shows that abolition sentiments have been increasing, and abolitionists have exerted themselves more and more. Every succeeding contest, in our political history, shows their increasing agitation, and the invariable result has been *the victory of pro-slavery principles*. Mrs. Stowe thinks it is because they have not taken sufficiently stringent measures; but does not her own history of the subject show that when they have least agitated the subject they have met with most success? More stringent measures might have wrecked the Union, wrecked the unity of the religious bodies, wrecked peace and government; but certainly no sensible observer of the past could ever draw from it the conclusion that greater agitation would have ever made more probable, peaceful emancipation. We can trace the triumph of pro-slavery sentiments, step by step, with the increase of abolition agitation at the North. One might suppose abolitionists could have learned something from the history of the past; and does it not prove that they have invariably lost by the discussion of the subject? Has not their course been utterly suicidal? On page 219, Mrs. Stowe sums up the results of their efforts by saying, "We are losing the battle, we are wrecking the ship." Surely, then, the system they have pursued is not calculated to attain that end. If they really desire what they call peaceful abolition, surely they can see that whereas before the subject was discovered by them, a large proportion of intelligent southerners thought slavery wrong; since it has been discussed, their minds seem settled entirely in favor of it. If we southerners desired nothing but the death of abolition, one would suppose we could desire nothing more than the discussion of the thing by abolitionists, for every word they have uttered has been but its death-warrant. What we rue, however, is, that by *their* discussion they rouse a feeling which gives impunity to such men as Souther.

There are but two experiments we southerners can try—one is that of direct emancipation. That is an experiment which wise men, besides southerners, considered fraught with danger, (and here we would notice the very judicious tone of some of the English press, to which we imagine Jamaica helped them.) If this experiment were once made, we never could retrace our

step, and would incur the danger so feelingly recorded by Mrs. Stowe—

Of setting all the world on fire,
To burn just so high, and no higher.

The other experiment is that of endeavoring to correct the abuses of the system, to Christianize and humanize it. This experiment cannot harm any one; there is no danger of taking steps not to be retraced. To this, every liberal, intelligent, humane southerner would give his support, if the abolitionists would cease the efforts which so stir up the masses, as to tie the hands of those who would act in this way. True, Mrs. Stowe says, that any amelioration of American slavery is inconsistent with the existence of slavery at all; but this she practically contradicts, by attempting to prove that American slavery is the most severe system of slavery that ever existed, and consequently, that much greater leniency is consistent with a state of slavery. Besides, we do not agree with Mrs. Stowe in her notion, that it is impossible to be humane to the slave and still keep him a slave.

The question is, which plan should the experience of those who desire peaceful abolition, lead them to advocate? Experience certainly has proved that their advocacy of emancipation has killed the measure; so, if they are honest in desiring it, they certainly should adopt some other plan.

The other plan is one by which, according to Mrs. Stowe's notion, slavery was destroyed by the early Church. According to Mrs. Stowe's views, (which we shall controvert further on,) St. Paul took this very plan of refining and humanizing the system in order to destroy it. What if we would adopt this plan, because not having the superior foresight of the deep-seeing Mrs. Stowe, we do not think an attempt to be lenient would destroy the system. So that her end is gained, does it matter to her that it be gained by such means? Suppose we do not take the view she does of St. Paul's plan, in her greater wisdom, she would probably say, we would only be willing to go to a certain point in our leniency. Assuredly it is better to gain *something* by this plan towards the furtherance of her object, than to lose everything by pursuing another course.

When we can prove from the writings of abolitionists themselves the admission that the agitation of the subject by themselves has but rendered far more improbable of attainment that very end they profess to have in view, viz., peaceful emancipation, can we be blamed for thinking they do not desire a *peaceful* termination to slavery, that a fierce hatred to us outweighs their love for the slave, and that they would rather deluge this land in blood than not? We acquit Mrs. Stowe of this. Woman-like, she is evidently so wrought up by the tale

of wrongs, that she does not see the real tendency of her efforts. She reminds us of poor Madame Roland, whose fate should certainly teach her sex the danger of their attempting political reformations. She felt deeply the wrongs of others, and like a woman, guided blindly by her feelings, she sought the removal of evils, without reflecting that she but led the way to still greater ones. She contributed to inflame inflammable men to pull down existing institutions, and dreamed the evil would stop there, and France become a free country. The result is, that after innocent blood has been made to flow like water, France has settled back to a despotism.

That a peaceful termination can in a day be put to American slavery, which has been so many long years growing up, seems by no means probable. There is no account of any sudden emancipation of any race from slavery taking place peacefully and healthfully, in the history of the world. No great revolution of any kind ever took place healthfully and suddenly. The right of trial by jury, the freedom of the press, and the other rights which go to make up the sum of that liberty which the English and ourselves alone, of all nations of the earth, enjoy, along with good government, are not the result of sudden changes, but of causes at work through so long a period of years, that their growth in the British Constitution, whence we derived them, can with difficulty be traced. Other nations, who have tried to effect by sudden revolutions what we enjoy, as the benefit of such long struggles, have first destroyed government altogether, and finally riveted the chains of despotism. Experience has taught us that we were wrong in fancying because we could be free that the whole world was fit for it. The millennium has not come yet, and men are not yet perfect, and some of the old feudal methods of putting the weak under the protection of the strong are necessary, which, however they may appear to extravagant notions of freedom like putting the weak in the power of the strong, are yet in reality a protection, and such is American slavery.

Melancholy, indeed, must be the reflections of every lover of the South on the position things have assumed. There seems no probability that these fanatics will ever permit us to be sufficiently quiet to give more full evidence than we have already done, of our wish to be friends to the negro, though necessity compels us to be his master, until some of the changes and chances which usually have brought about such things shall bring a termination to the necessity of slavery, if indeed Providence designs it ever shall be terminated. But when posterity shall be told of such cases as Souther's, and shall ask where were the enlightened, the liberal, the humane, when law was

rendered so ineffectual for the protection of the weak; we would put it upon protest for all time, that external agitators had so interfered with our institutions as no people ever were interfered with before; that this class of southerners had, in this case, no influence over the masses they should have directed. And if the future historian of this country represent them as consenting to murders abhorrent to their very souls, there is another court, where the false decisions of history shall be reversed.

In the mean time, one word as to the lesson to be learned by southerners from Mrs. Stowe's books. Abolition is dead, stone dead at the South, drowned in the sea; and when its friends seek to drag up its lifeless body, the only success they ever meet with is, when they seize a limb of that humanity which they have tried to tie hand and foot to it to float its heavy remains. Surely, surely, we should try to show the world that humanity and abolition are not the Siamese twins, never seen apart, but are only joined by the efforts of those who would support the bad name of the one, by the good name of the other. Every word Mrs. Stowe says against us is utterly and ridiculously confutable, until she finds in our ranks such men as Souther, and it is only by the aid of such she ever obtains a hearing. Is it not evident that such men are the worst enemies of our institutions; and does not Mrs. Stowe admit that the humane slaveholder is the great upholder of the institution? And though united effort seems impossible, from the agitation these fanatics have created, let every one take to heart, that, individually, by cultivating the wisdom of the serpent, we may occasionally help to wash such stains from the escutcheons of our country. While it is wrong to lose influence which may be used for good, by telling even truth at an inexpedient moment, still, there are times when the strong sense of justice and humanity of the masses will prevail, and bear it; and at least, let no consideration throw our influence on the wrong side. Individuals may often prevent inhumanities, which would be a great argument for our enemies, and they can always set their faces against any useless vexing of this sore subject by interested politicians.

To any reflecting and unprejudiced person, especially at the South, the difficulties in this problem of negro slavery are so great, so insuperable, that it is hard to realize. Mrs. Stowe intends to cut the Gordian knot, and boldly say there is no difficulty at all in emancipation; and so one reads on and on, through page after page of caustic declamation, with curiosity heightened to know what plan she will propose, how solve the riddle which has puzzled so many wise heads, and when she comes to the last chapter, and we find no plan, no hint of a plan except im-

mediate, unconditional emancipation, then flashes on the mind that grand sophistry in which the book is built, that nothing prevents the slave from being a valuable free citizen but southern cupidity. Into such flimsy materials dissolves this masked battery, from behind which so many shots have been fired. To her penetrating acumen, it boots not that history lends no light in this case, that wide and almost insuperable differences of race, and the influence of external agitators which no slaveholders but ourselves ever had to contend with, have invested American slavery in a mist which we have vainly endeavored to penetrate. To Mrs. Stowe it is as plain as that two and two make four. When the sex get the "*rights*" for which northern women are battling, we hope Mrs. Stowe will be made secretary of state, for such political talents should not be lost.

The most natural termination which seems to present itself to our mind (if slavery is to be finally extinguished, which we do not say) in the problem of American slavery is, that in time the tendency southward, and already observable in the American negro, may collect the race on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico; and then, as population increases, and the slaves become not only useless, but a burden to us, we will get rid of this surplus population by transporting them across the Gulf to South America, and over the line to Mexico, where, in a population which seems to amalgamate readily with them, they may be free. This seems the natural termination, but these insane clamors at the North may bring about another and speedier fate for the race; and any one who observes the influence they have had on the past in destroying the measure of emancipation which they profess to advocate, will not be surprised that in the future it is decidedly against it. Should these agitators prove that slave property is insecure in a republic, and threaten violently to deprive us of it before it shall have served its day and generation, and become useless, it is not improbable slaveholders may attempt to avert the evils of forcible abolition, by obtaining grants of that fertile land on the Amazon, so peculiarly adapted for our purposes, and removing their slaves thither, where, under a monarchical government, that of Brazil, their rights may be respected, they may perpetuate the institution, or at least remove all prospect of the extinction of slavery to a very remote period.

We have already extended our review so far, that we have space for but a very cursory examination of Mrs. Stowe's view of the Scripture argument. Here Mrs. Stowe again attempts to push us off the vantage-ground we occupy, by requiring us to produce arguments for slavery in the abstract, before we can make out our case satisfactorily. What is necessary for us to prove,

is only that it may be permitted to us in a case when to dispense with it would produce incomparably greater evils.

Her arguments on the Old Testament view are four-fold. First, that in Hebrew slavery, the difference between the rank of master and servant was so great, that it could hardly be called slavery. To which we reply, that in that day servants belonged to the same rank with their masters, and moreover, the distinction between all ranks was very indefinite. If Mrs. Stowe can quote, to prove master and servant in some respects almost on a level, that Samuel brought *Saul and his servant into the parlor and made them sit down in the seat of honor*, we also read that (so different were ranks from what they are now-a-days) Saul, after he was acknowledged king, when messengers came to tell him of the incursion of the Ammonites, *came up after the herd out of the field*. Secondly, she says, to prove Hebrew slavery could, in our sense of the word, hardly be called slavery, "Suppose we apply the system of Hebrew slavery, with all its limitations," to our negroes, and it is evident we might as well free them. To which we reply, that if we were to apply the system of Hebrew government altogether to the American people, it is evident it would be no government at all, and yet it was one at that day. Thirdly, she says from the limitations to it given the system of Hebrew slavery appears to have been a system of gradual emancipation. To which we reply, the books of the Bible, in which we find most of the regulations of Hebrew slavery, (especially that of Leviticus), were written before the entry of the Jews into the promised land, and before slavery was established, and that a system should be devised, for the "gradual limiting, restraining, and extinguishing slavery," which might have been so much more easily done by simple prohibition, does appear very absurd, especially that this system for "gradually limiting, restraining and extinguishing" slavery, should contain an express permission *not to keep, but to buy slaves*. The construction she puts on the military laws to make a parallel case, is utterly forced, and warranted by no commentary we have examined. Fourthly, she says, if our evidence be admitted, it proves too much, as the same evidence could be used for the permission of polygamy, blood, revenge, &c. To which we reply, full evidence for their prohibition under the Gospel can be produced, while there is evidence that a very distinguished member of the Church was not only permitted to become such, and retain slaves, but when one ran away, an apostle sent him back. We feel as indignant as Mrs. Stowe is, that this letter, which should lighten the burden of the Christian slave, by leading his master to regard him as a brother, should be made a warrant for cruelties, but it certainly contains no evidence against slavery, *per se*. Mrs. Stowe takes a

great deal of trouble to prove that St. Paul was an abolitionist, but after all her efforts, if she succeeds in making him one at all, at the most, one of so pale and doubtful a hue, that we are convinced, were it not for the sake of having such authority on her side, she would have given him up altogether.

Now, for our part, commend us to the consistency of those gentlemen of the infidel stamp, recorded by Mrs. Stowe, who, rather than fraternize with such a miserable old time-server as Mrs. Stowe represents St. Paul to be, prefer to cut the Gordian knot, and deny his authority altogether. Who doubts Mrs. Stowe would deny the *honorable* name of abolitionist altogether to any clergyman at the present day who sends runaway slaves back to their masters, and never says one word about the sin of retaining them in slavery? If the Rev. Mr. Smylie, or those successors of the apostles, the Bishops of Virginia and Texas, had done such a thing, it would certainly be quite in keeping with their character, even if they did remind the master that his slave had repented of his sins and become his Christian brother. Certainly, we who live in the Southern States should know something about pro-slavery clergymen, and may be entitled to say that we think the Epistle to Philemon just such a one as we could expect from one of them. Mrs. Stowe misrepresents this useful and laborious body of clergymen as preaching to the slaves about their duty to their masters, but quite neglecting to preach up duties to slaves among their masters, because in a volume of sermons preached to negroes, Bishop Meade did not address injunctions to masters. The probability is, the congregations to which they were preached were composed almost wholly of negroes. The writer has occasion to know something of this woful class of men, having been a member of a church where there were about a hundred colored communicants to eighteen whites. The clergyman who had the cure of those souls did not address masters in his sermons, partly because the masters who attended his ministrations were already alive to their duties, as might be shown by their employing a clergyman almost solely for the benefit of the negroes, and partly for the same reason, that if he had wanted to address parents on neglected duties to children, he would probably have taken an opportunity when the children were not present. He did, however, by private exhortation, every thing in his power to awaken every master in his neighborhood who was not alive to his duty to his slaves. We wonder if Mrs. Stowe would not be utterly astonished to see an epistle to Philemon coming from Rev. Theodore Parker, the Rev. Le Roy Sunderland, or Rev. Albert Barnes. Mrs. Stowe gives us what she supposes was St. Paul's method of abolition, and that pursued by the early church, viz., ransom, and then contradicts the assertion of her belief in its

success, by pursuing an entirely different plan. The fact that such was the method pursued by the early church, in a slavery which had none of the difficulties of our slavery, because its subjects, so far from being negroes, seem to have been quite the equals of their masters as very significant, especially when, in addition to this, Mrs. Stowe records that a certain council of the early church positively forbids enticing slaves from their masters. How often shall it be reiterated that we can argue for emancipation, from no other case of slavery the world has seen to ours, because they are dissimilar? If the best of arguments could be constructed, it could not apply to our case at all, and then the argument she does construct, is utterly weak and baseless. We southerners would be willing for every New-Englander in New-England to be just such abolitionists as St. Paul was, and when they are we shall be delighted to see them at the South, and we shall give them a different exemplification of southern hospitality from the one Mr. Hoar had. We will even be as willing for Mr. Barnes or Mr. Sunderland to preach on our plantations as for Bishops Meade or Freeman to do so. Let any one who has perused Mrs. Stowe's Key, picture to themselves what sort of a letter she would have written in St. Paul's place, and then read the Epistle to Philemon, and he will find it rather difficult to convince himself that Mrs. Stowe and St. Paul stand on the same platform.

Mrs. Stowe ends her book by what she deems quite a clincher—the application of the golden rule. Now it seems to us that not only Mrs. Stowe, but many other persons, have never considered precisely what the golden rule means.

To illustrate. Since J. J. Astor would probably have wished, if our situations had been reversed, that I would leave him half my fortune, does it follow, on application of the golden rule, that he was bound to give me half his? Manifestly, no. The application which Mrs. Stowe makes of it, and the signification she accepts, make it equally binding on her to ransom slaves as on us to free them; equally binding on slaves not to run away; binding, in fact, on every body to commit any suicidal act the self-love of his neighbor prompts him to wish. So long as Mrs. Stowe accepts this definition, we must hold her inconsistent in spending her money going to Europe, &c., very inconsistent in writing books to encourage abolition, when, if she were a slaveholder, it is the very last thing she would wish any body to do. She should do as she would wish to be done by me, were she in my place. We accept no such interpretation, and as we know not where to look for a precise definition, we think we shall not be far wrong in adopting the following. In estimating the aid the Bible binds me to bestow on my brother, I am not to be influenced by my own selfish feelings, but rather by what I should

have a right according to *Christian fellowship* to expect, were I in his place. Mrs. Stowe would probably say the slave has a right to expect freedom. This is arguing in a circle. It is saying the slave has a right to expect it because the golden rule commands it, and the golden rule commands it because the slave has a right to expect it. The *right* is the very point in dispute between us, and we cannot permit her so to take it for granted. She repeats this sort of arguing in a circle on nearly every page of her book. Buying and selling slaves is wrong, because emancipation is safe; and emancipation is safe, because buying and selling slaves is wrong, &c. As for the freedom of the negro, we do not conceive the golden rule gives him any right to expect it at the expense of involving blacks and whites in common ruin. One word here as to the ladies of England, who seem so carried away by an opportunity for exercising that charming philanthropy which involves no cost and sacrifice on their part. When they manifest a desire to atone for the sins of our common ancestors, by contributing liberally to the emancipation of slaves in the way Mrs. Stowe tells us the early church advanced that object, we may listen with some patience to their meddling advice about our affairs.

As to the artistic merit of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, we hold Mrs. Stowe's power to lie chiefly in the delineation of character. The book excites our feelings, but in estimating Mrs. Stowe's power by that, we should remember that there are certain scenes and incidents in themselves so essentially tragic, that any description of them, even by an inferior pen, can powerfully arouse the reader. For example, the pathos in the story of Pocahontas is in the thing itself, and it could hardly be told so as to destroy its powers; while the pathos in Irving's beautiful story of "The Wife" is more in his manner of telling it. As Mrs. Stowe's incidents are not inventions, according to her own account, she is only entitled to the merit of having improved them by the way in which she has wrought them up.

Art. VII.—ITALIAN LETTERS.

[We are permitted to peruse and publish another of the letters from a lady abroad to her friends at home. Our readers will recollect that we published one or two of these letters last year, over the signature of Gertrude.]

FLORENCE.

You wonder, M——, that I write you so little of the churches here. Italy is indeed, as you say, very full of them, and many of them are very beautiful; but because I have failed to mention, you must not think me unmindful or forgetful of these beauties. I wrote you of the holy awe that subdued my very soul, in the sublime solitude of St. Peter's, and still stranger

shadows have fallen upon my spirit in some of these old Gothic cathedrals. In their wealth of grotesque carving and floral tracery, I have read, or rather dreamed out many a curious lesson. I have knelt on the marble pavements, when the brilliant glow of the early morning reddened the eastern skies, and streamed in through the chancel windows, falling softly and reverently upon the bowed heads of the worshipping peasants. Their lowly homage was to the *material* presence of Him whose mighty hand had "spread out the heavens as a curtain," and painted them thus gorgeously, to conceal His own abode. I bowed not with them then, yet my lowlier homage, perhaps, went up silently to that Holy One.

** For as I saw God's shadow there,
My spirit poured itself in prayer."

Again, when those worshipping few had all departed, the sultry noon-tide has found me there. The dim light and sacred quiet cooled my fevered brain, and chastened my wayward fancies. And when the evening's mellow blush tinged with radiant hues the stained glass of the windows, bringing out their fairy flowers and delicate leafings with strange distinctness, and the vesper chimes sounded the hour of prayer, I have knelt there still. The magic light came pouring in showers of crimson and gold, there falling upon the pale face of a Madonna, and lighting it up with a rare unearthly beauty, here endowing with life-like earnestness the agonized countenance of a suffering Saviour, and throwing over each distorted lineament a halo that had truly fallen from the skies. Here starting into bold relief a sculptured crowd of mocking forms, who seemed peering from the buttresses, clinging to the airy pinnacles, and swaying amid the delicate enfoliations of the capitals, there flinging into fantastic shadows the fretted roof and interlacing columns, and losing itself in the deep gloom of the heavy arches.

I fear, M——, I cannot make you understand the strange fascination that made the dim shadows of those old cathedrals more beautiful to me than any gay sunshine I had ever known. Though a lowly admirer of the art that gave them being, I had never been its reverent student; but if I could not understand, I could feel its majestic grandeur. I might not know how those slender shafts were made to sustain the weight of the vaulted arches thrown upon them, but I could feel to my very heart the touching lesson I fancied they taught me. The mulioned windows, the groined roof, the glancing spires, the cusps of the panellings, and the elegant fan-like tracery of the architraves and pediments, were all rich in symbolism to my excited

* Plato calls truth the substance of God, and light His shadow.

imagination. Then, too, they took me back to that olden time, when a man's heart had designed, and a man's hand fashioned, all this intricate beauty. We speak of it as a ruder age, and call the mediæval period *dark*; but surely there was hidden in it the light of a pure purpose, and a noble zeal. These curious carvings and delicate elaborations oftentimes seem wasted in obscure corners, where only an eye accustomed to the gloom can discern their propriety; and yet were they wanting, the symmetry would be broken, and a link lost in the beautiful symbolic chain. We write books and poems to pour forth the exuberance of our thoughts, then men chiselled them in stone, and taught the lifeless marble to speak their love and reverence. When we were children together, M——, you loved best the open lawn with the chestnut shadows waving over it; I sought ever the forest, into whose thickest recesses the sunlight seldom penetrated: you sat by the open window, where the warm south wind parted the vines, and played upon your cheek, a little dark corner in the library; where the south wind never came was my favorite retreat. And so I think you would have chosen the gay life we led in Naples last winter, in preference to our present one, which is so very quiet.

You have noticed that I speak of my visitings to the churches in the past tense, simply. Living so much in their quiet and gloom, I caught something of their spirit, and an unwonted sadness stole over me. H——, my most indulgent guardian, deprecating the change, and guessing its cause, has prohibited all such solitary visitings in future. Now my fancy often leads me, from these grand old cathedrals, from which I am shut out, back to the little parish church in the shadow of our ancestral home. The sweet tones of the bell that called us there, the brick walk through the grove, where the gleaming marbles reminded us of our sleeping kindred, the pleasant summer perfume of new-mown grass, and the quaint fashioning of the old building, with its pointed windows first peeping through the mass of ivy that a century's growth had thrown upon it, come before me very vividly.

But I fancy, M——, you are beginning to look wonderingly at the heading of my letter, and imagine that it is misdated, "Florence." Yet you could not have thought that I intended to furnish such a learned young lady as my cousin M—— with a guide-book to my Italian travels. Other tourists have done that by scores, and they will supply you with all you need, of fact, fiction, or history; I only purpose to write you occasionally of the thoughts and feelings that the beauties and genius of the country have suggested and awakened in my mind. Among the many pleasures that I hope the future will bring me, there is none more fondly anticipated than that of being

re-united to you. Fate will make me for a year or two longer a wanderer, and then ——! Memory is stamping the scene of my present life indelibly upon my mind,—we will retire then together, after a while, and as the tongue is ever more eloquent than the pen, I shall make you see then, as I cannot do now, Italy as I have seen it.

Dante calls Florence beloved, even when he was "cast forth from her sweet bosom," "The fairest and most renowned daughter of Rome," and poetry and song have long named her "The beautiful." And when I have wandered through her famous galleries, gardens, palaces and libraries, or strolled at evening along the banks of the Arno, I have felt the justness of the epithet. The sarcophagus and statue of Dante, by Stefano Ricci, in the Santa Croce, interested me much. The Santa Croce, you remember, is called the Westminster Abbey of Italy, and we have spent many a quiet hour in the sepulchre of Italian genius. The tombs by which we have lingered longest, are those of Michael Angelo, Alfieri, Galileo, Aretino, Machiavelli, and Pietro Micheli. One is brought here into the intellectual presence of such great minds, that the fulness of thought suggested is often overwhelming. Names, that for centuries have been "upon the world's wide tongue," and that we from our childhood have spoken reverently, become as familiar as household words. The great Etruscan bards, Dante, Tasso, and Petrarch, seem identified with their Florence. In all their weary wanderings, in poverty, exile and distress, the memory of their beautiful city was ever present with them, and it is but just that that city should love and venerate their name. The deathless songs they have left us have been dearer to me since I have heard them in their own soft language, and the enthusiasm with which the Florentines cherish them, finds a ready echo in my heart.

My brother came here two months ago, to study in the galleries, and Italy, I think, furnishes no finer studies. He—— is very much engrossed, and his passionate devotion to his art is becoming contagious. I used to be rather skeptical in relation to old paintings, and truly it would require a considerable effort of the imagination to discover beauty or grace in those we are accustomed to see at home. But a canvas touched by the master hand of genius centuries since, is still glowing with the deathless impress. Titian's beautiful coloring the Italians call "internal light," and it is a light whose lucid splendor time seems to brighten rather than rob of its lustre.

Art. VIII.—IMPROVEMENT OF RIVERS.

AN EXPOSITION OF THE STATE OF THE RIVER APPOMATTOX IN 1824, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE WORKS FOR ITS IMPROVEMENT—OF THE VIEWS BY WHICH WE HAVE BEEN GUIDED IN DESIGNING THAT IMPROVEMENT—AND A STATEMENT OF THE BENEFICIAL RESULTS WHICH THE WORKS CONSTRUCTED, IN ACCORDANCE WITH THESE VIEWS, HAVE PRODUCED.

THE river Appomattox receives the drainage of a portion of the State of Virginia, of one thousand square miles. Assuming the mean annual height of rain which falls in the above valley, drained by the Appomattox, at 42 inches, we have, by calculation, the quantity which falls annually in the whole valley, $5280 \times 5280 \times 1000 \times 3.5 = 97,574,400,000$ cubic feet; and assuming that $\frac{1}{3}$ of this quantity be discharged by the river, we have the river's mean annual discharge, $\frac{97,574,400,000}{3} = 32,524,800,000$ cubic feet.

The capacity of the Appomattox above the town, as a river, is of little consequence. Its rise is sometimes sudden and high, but it is of short duration, and the surface soon sinks down again to low-water level, so that navigation cannot follow the course of the river.

The tidal compartment of the river, in which the tide ebbs and flows, extends to the falls, at the upper end of the town, a distance of about eleven and a half miles from James River. This compartment is only navigable when its waters are deepened by the influx of the tide, and is consequently closed to all vessels during the absence of tidal influence. It is formed and kept open by the scouring action of the backwater.

Previous to the commencement of the works in 1824, for the improvement of the river, the navigation and the flow of its waters were so much obstructed by bars or sand-banks, that only vessels drawing about three feet of water could be made use of for the trade of Petersburg. The most injurious bar, called the "Stop-bar," about 2 miles below Petersburg, had a depth of about 6 inches at low water, in dry seasons, and the flow was 3 feet, making a total depth of 3 feet 6 inches below zero of the water-meter, at which it was fixed in 1824, at the wharf of Petersburg, assumed as the datum line of high water at a spring tide. At low water, the main current passed through a narrow winding channel across the bar, from the right to the left shore, leaving the extensive sand-bank nearly dry; and even then, the channel would not admit, at very low water in the river proper, the passage of a small canoe.

Vessels were generally detained here by grounding, and had

to be lightened. The breadth of the river was here about 620 feet, surface of water at zero.

On the Robertson's bar, at the head of Archer's Island, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles below Petersburg, the depth of water was about 4 feet below zero of the water-meter; and on the Farmer's bar, at the head of Gilliam's Island, about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles below Petersburg, there was about the same depth.

These bars dammed up the surface of the river at low water, and prevented the free admission of the tide, and free discharge of the backwater.

The freshets to which the river is subjected, are capable of removing all bars, equalizing the depth, and keeping the bed clear from any deposit, if the energy of the current were properly directed. Besides the bars, the flow of the water was retarded by the circuitous line of channel, the irregular expansion of the water, the division of the river into several branches by islands, and the amount of fall of the bed or surface of the river at low water. From the head of Gilliam's Island to the Point of Rocks, in a distance of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, the river is allowed to vary in its course through a wide expanse, having several channels, though neither has the depth which would be found in a single and regular one.

The sedimentary matter which the river brings along from above, in time of a freshet, into the tidal compartment below Petersburg, consists of fine sand and mud. The dams across the stream above the town, for canal and mill purposes, retain the coarser materials. This is also, in some measure, proved by the depth of water from 8 to 10 feet in front of the city wharves.

The obstructions to the free flow of the tide and the backwater, all lie about the Point of Rocks, and extend about 8 miles from the city of Petersburg.

Assuming that the mean annual discharge of the river Appomattox, of 32,524,800,000 cubic feet, be equally divided throughout the whole year, we have the daily discharge, $\frac{32,524,800,000}{365} = 89,100,000$ cubic feet, or 1031.25 cubic feet per second. Let this quantity of 1031.25 cubic feet per second be conveyed through an open canal of 8 miles, or 42,240 feet in length and 3 feet fall, we obtain the dimensions of the transverse section of the canal from the formula $\sqrt{\frac{1031.25 \times 42,240}{2 \times 96^2 \times 3}}$ for open streams which are flowing with a uniform motion; the depth, 15.2 feet; the breadth at the surface, 50.7 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 10.1 feet; the area of the transverse section, 462.08 square feet. Supposed that the base of the side-slope be four-thirds of the height or depth.

Let the discharge be 5,000 cubic feet per second, in time of a

freshet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we obtain the depth, 28.6 feet; the breadth at the surface, 95.3 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 19.1 feet; the area of the transverse section, 1635.9 square feet.

Let the depth of the river be 12 feet; the breadth at the bottom 60 feet, and at the surface 120 feet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have from the formula, $96 \sqrt{\left(\frac{90 \times 12 \times 3}{90 + 2 \times 12 \times 42,240}\right)}$, the mean velocity 2.5 feet per second, the discharge 2,700 cubic feet per second.

We can increase the velocity of the water in a river without increasing its fall, when, by a regular formation of its transverse section, we discover the perimeter or the sum of the bottom and the two sides touched by the water. Let the breadth of the transverse section of the river be 200 feet at the surface, and 100 feet at the bottom; the depth 6 feet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have the mean velocity 1.9 feet per second, the discharge 1,710 cubic feet per second. But taking the breadth of the transverse section at the surface 93 feet, and at the bottom 57 feet, the depth 12 feet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have the mean velocity 2.4 feet per second, the discharge 2,160 cubic feet per second. The difference in the discharge, $2,160 - 1,710 = 450$ cubic feet per second in favor of the decreased perimeter.

Let the discharge be 2,160 cubic feet per second, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we obtain for the best form of the transverse section, according to the above formula, the depth 20.4 feet, the breadth at the surface 68.0, the breadth at the bottom 13.6, the area of the transverse section 832.3 square feet, and the mean velocity about 2.6 feet per second. In order to obtain, therefore, the greatest velocity in the river's bed, we should give to the transverse section that form in which the perimeter for a given area is a minimum, or the area for a given perimeter a maximum.

The bed of a river, of a given width, has its most perfect form, when the surface of the stream and the bottom of its longitudinal section form parallel lines, and this is the greatest extent to which it can be improved.

We have seen it stated, that on account of the low islands and the lateral channels giving room for the water to spread, the rise, in time of a freshet, is but little felt at the Point of Rocks or Broadway. If this were true, it would be equally true that the expanse above the Point of Rocks would admit a greater quantity of tidal water, and that the formation of a single regular channel would prove injurious to the river above the islands.

This is, however, at variance with fact. The very reverse

would be experienced, because the velocity of the water is diminished by the expanse of its bed. A single and regular channel will admit more tidal water, promote the discharge of the backwater, and with it a reduction in the height of the water, in time of a freshet, at Petersburg.

The rise of the water in the river at Petersburg will cause an augmentation of its velocity and transverse sectional area, as well as an increase in declivity of the surface, and discharge of the water.

A greater declivity, or fall of the surface of the river, requires not so great a transverse section, as a smaller one, for the discharge of the same quantity of water.

Let 5,000 cubic feet per second be discharged, in time of a freshet, through an open canal of 6 feet fall, in the length of 8 miles, we obtain, from the above formula, the depth, 24.9 feet; the breadth at the surface, 83.0 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 16.6 feet; the area of the transverse section, 1,240 square feet.

According to the foregoing calculations, the required area of the transverse section to discharge 5,000 cubic feet per second should be for a fall of 3 feet in 8 miles 1635.9 square feet; for a fall of 6 feet in 8 miles, 1240.0 square feet. Difference in favor of the greater fall, 395.9 square feet.

The above calculations show in how far we may decrease or increase the discharge of water, or regulate the depth of a river by the form of the transverse section, or regulate the breadth of the river according to the wants of the navigation. The river requires not only depth, but likewise a sufficient breadth for navigation. If the breadth of the river were to be contracted, its depth would be increased; but then the space for the vessels would be lessened, so that in augmenting the depth, care must be taken that it may not prove injurious to navigation.

By a judicious contraction we facilitate navigation, and promote the free discharge of the backwater, and consequent full egress of the tide.

The above calculations show also the great importance of hydrometrical measurement and observations, before forming a design of improvement.

The upland water is not sufficient to afford ample breadth and depth for the purpose of navigation, and an improvement of the available depth will therefore mainly depend on the proper regulation of the ingress and egress of the tide.

In order to accelerate and increase the tide which flows through the channel up to Petersburg, it is requisite to lower the bed of the river, and remove all abutments to its free flow.

The fall of the bed or of the surface of the river at low water should be determined before forming any design of improvement.

The river having been allowed to widen its channel, and to pursue a winding course, it will require a systematic regulation of the course of the river by proper works to create and maintain a regular slope of the bottom of the bed, or a regular depth of water.

The velocity of a river can be augmented by the lateral contraction of its cross section, and it is the plan generally employed to deepen its bed. It is equally proper, when the object is to accelerate the discharge of the backwater. Lowering the bed of the river will also increase the flow of the tide, by reducing the height of the surface of the river at low water, and thereby producing a greater vertical rise of the tide.

The fall of the surface of the river at low water exhibits a great irregularity along its course; it is greater on the shoals than in places where the river is deep, so that instead of presenting a longitudinal section of a regular plane, we find a succession of inclined planes.

By contracting the width of the river and straightening its course, we shall produce a greater scouring power to operate on the bottom of the bed, and equalize the depths. But the scouring action upon the bottom of the bed cannot be properly effected, without protecting the sides by such works as will produce a regular flow and depth of water in the channel.

The scouring action of the river is constantly directed to establish everywhere a certain depth, and to this it will remove by degrees the sand and mud which come from above; or if a constant quantity of water were flowing down the river, there would be no tendency to alterations, as to depth, or tendency to deposit, because the scouring power being constant, all the sand which was brought down into the bed would be transported seaward.

The bottom of the bed of the river Appomattox consists of a material capable of removal by the action of a stronger current, except the fixed rocks in the Cut, at Blandford, near Petersburg; but in order to produce the greatest scouring action, it will be necessary to raise the works above the highest stage of the river.

Bends in a river have a material influence on the velocity of the current. To cut a new channel in a straight line with the course of the river, above and below, lessens the number of obstructions to the motion of the water, and increases the relative fall, and consequently augments the velocity of the stream in a double ratio.

By lengthening the course of the river we lessen the velocity, and with it the scouring action of the current.

To a straight reach of a river the scouring power operates on

the bottom of the bed, while in the opposite case it acts more on the sides.

The obstructions presented by an abrupt bend of a river to the propagation of the tide, cause the heaping up or swelling of the water at the lower end, and, therefore, the tide will commence to flow later above the bend, than if it was not retarded in its winding upward passage.

At the lower end of a bend, where the tide meets the contracted downward current, eddies are formed, and here is the greatest depth, and the closest to the shore.

Islands, too, like bends or bars, by augmenting the width of the river, prevent a rapid discharge of the water, upon which the depth or vertical rise of the river mainly depends.

It is advantageous to shut up all secondary channels, so as to confine the whole of the water to the navigable channel, and, if required, to enlarge the one which is in a direct line with the course of the river, so as to assimilate its cross-sectional area to that of the river proper. If the breadth of a stream is decreased, its depth must be increased, in order to equalize the sectional area which the river is capable of keeping open.

In order to obtain all the requisite data, as to the design and execution of the works for the improvement of the river, we must have a correct survey of the river, with longitudinal and transverse sections, as well as observations of the rise and fall of the water, the fall of the surface of the river at low water, the velocity of the water, the quantity discharged in a certain time at a certain height on the water-meter, and the nature of the materials of which the bottom and sides of the bed are composed.

The plan of the river should represent a complete history of the whole improvement and its effects. It should not only accurately show by colored lines the extent of the highest inundation throughout its whole course, but also the extent of the tide at high and low water, and show the places where the transverse sections of the stream were taken, as well as the line of navigation or fair-way at the time of the survey.

Water-meters should be fixed in the river before the commencement of the soundings, in order to be able to reduce the depths to the zero or datum line of the water. The zero from which the meter is graduated in feet and inches may be assumed as high water of a spring tide. The mere statement that the depths refer to ordinary high water does not enable us to form a correct notion of the depths; it is too indefinite.

By comparing the sections and observations made during several years, and always in reference to the zero or datum line of the water-meter, we become acquainted with the changes that

have been effected, and learn whether the works have fully answered the intended end.

When possessed of all requisite data, we can ascertain to what extent the bed of the river can be deepened, contracted, or widened, what secondary channels must be shut up, or new cuts made to avoid bends, or to shorten the course of the river; in short, to give the bed such a form and direction, that the flow of the tide and discharge of the backwater may meet with the least obstruction.

We should also endeavor, in the course of our operations, to give to the bed and bends that form and direction which is most convenient for navigation.

Fitters or spurs may, in some cases, be constructed to great advantage, if of proper form and judiciously located; but on the other hand, they may prove great obstacles to the flow of the currents, and form irregular motion of the water or eddies, and become rather detrimental than beneficial to navigation, by forming a continuation of deep hollows and shoals at their extreme points, without deepening the channel, for which purpose they were executed.

By the execution of low jetties, fences, as well as by planting with willows the low shelving banks along the course of the river, we reduce the breadth of the transverse section of the stream, and decrease in time of a freshet the velocity of the water which passes over them, which will cause the deposit between these works of the heavy materials which the river brings from above, and form by degrees new and higher bends, and thus produce gradually a more regular bed and a greater depth of water.

After the river is confined in a permanent direction by proper works, whereby the velocity of the current has been increased, we may perhaps beneficially employ the operation of harrowing the bottom, so as to loosen the materials of which it is composed, and enable the stream to float off the smaller particles, and thus expedite the deepening of the bed. But as the shoals consist of a material capable of removal by the action of a stronger current, dredging must be suspended, by the construction of works to guide the river through a regular straight channel, and thus increase the velocity of the water and its consequent action upon the bottom of the bed.

The dredging operations may, however, be considered as an auxiliary in the improvement of the river, if simultaneously carried on with the construction of the necessary works for the formation of a straight and more regular channel.

Contracting the breadth of the stream, and carrying it in a judicious line of direction, will certainly produce a greater scour-

ing power, and thus operate much more powerfully on the deepening of its bed, than the expensive dredging vessels.

In stagnant water, where there is no cause at all for the accumulation of sand-bars, it is evident that dredging will bring about a lasting result; but in rivers which maintain at some places a little and at others a great depth, we can only establish a regular slope of the bottom of the bed, by the use of the force of the current in removing all those obstacles which hitherto prevented the creation of a regular depth. All that we have to do, is to convey the river in such a manner, as to form its bed of the desired depth, and in no other way can we expect a favorable result.

In rivers, however, where the bottom is composed of such materials as are too heavy to be moved by the increased current, dredging will certainly be useful. But in the case of the shoals in the tidal compartment of the river Appomattox, which are composed of fine loose sand, so easily removed by the action of a stronger current, produced by new bends of proper height and direction, it is contended that the river can be improved, or that a greater navigable depth can be produced, without being obliged to have recourse to the constant use of expensive dredging operations.

The greatest scouring effect seaward takes place as soon as the volume and velocity of the flood and river water are the greatest. This is, however, not the case directly after high water, but about half ebb, when the velocity has so much increased that it produces with the remaining quantity of water a maximum effect. The velocity of the water in a river decreases from the fair-way or middle of the stream towards the sides, and from the surface towards the bottom. The mean velocity of a transverse section of a stream is that with which, if all the particles were to move, the discharge would be the same with the actual discharge.

The statement, that the velocity of the current at flood and ebb at Broadway is one knot, and at Covington's half a knot per hour, shows clearly that we can obtain from such observations very little knowledge of the real state of the river. The discharge of a stream is ascertained by multiplying its mean velocity by the area of its transverse section.

The principles which we adopted for the removal of the obstructions in the bed of the river Appomattox were the production of an increased velocity, effected by the formation of a proper transverse section of the bed of the river, and by conveying the river in a judicious line of direction, so that ebb and flood would follow as near as possible the same mid-channel. For the improvement we had, however, to select a breadth of the river whereby the discharge of water could be performed without

doing any injury to the natural bends. This breadth could only be met with at such places where the current maintained the desired depth without corroded banks.

In places where the current was near the shore, the depth great and a strong current, we constructed substantial facine-works, of sufficient crown and slope; but where there was not much current and the banks low and shelving, the jetties or fences were made of rows of stakes and wattling to diminish the velocity of the current, and permit a considerable portion of the sand moved by the freshets to deposit itself between these jetties. The jetties were placed at right angles to the direction of the current, and at proper distances, and every attention was paid to produce a uniform deposit between them, and prevent any eddies at their extreme points.

The want of sufficient means made it necessary to accomplish by degrees what could have been effected in a shorter time by works extending above the highest stage of the river. By confining the waters of the whole river, in time of a freshet, between high banks, it can be rendered more effective in deepening and keeping open the channel.

The secondary streams were shut up by dams, constructed of facines, stakes, and gravel, in the most substantial manner, and thus the water forced through the cuts at Blandford and Archer's Island.

The cuts or new river channels were formed by digging at first a trench of about 10 feet wide and 4 feet deep, at high tide, on the line of the contemplated direction, and the excavated soil thrown on both sides of the trench. As soon as this was finished the water was turned into the same, and then left to the scouring power of the current to form a sufficient space for the passage of the waters of the whole river.

In this manner all the materials from the cuts were washed down the river, without doing the least injury to the navigable depth below, all following the current towards the sea, and depositing at such places where the velocity of the water permitted.

It is certainly strange to find, in 1853, an attempt made to remove the loose sand and mud or deepen the bed of the river by the constant use of dredging vessels, without removing the causes which produce the obstructions in the bed of the river.

The rocks in the bottom of the cut or new river channel at Blandford were blasted and removed piecemeal, to the contemplated depth of seven feet, without much trouble and expense; a common earth dam was sufficient for the necessary drainage, and they may be removed to a greater depth with a comparatively small expenditure. At any rate, the proper direction of the river should not be sacrificed for the sake of a few hundred

dollars. The cost of deepening or opening the old bed of the river at Blandford by dredging operations, which could so easily be done, in a very short time, by the action of a well-directed current, will probably exceed that of the removal of the rocks. To deepen the old tortuous bed, and keep it open by mere dredging operations, is a pure and gratuitous waste of labor and money.

The obstructions in the old bed, at Blandford, are the tortuous and lengthened line of channel, the decreased relative fall, and the consequent diminished velocity of the water. By the straight cut are not only removed all the above obstructions to the motion of the water, but it has greatly facilitated navigation, by a straighter direction, and a greater depth, and at the same time, has reduced the height of water at the wharves of Petersburg, in time of a freshet, and thus has proved a decided improvement in the river. The removal of the rocks to the contemplated depth may, therefore, confidently be expected to be followed by highly beneficial effects, not only in the upper, but also in the part of the river lower down. These rocks once removed to the desired depth, the action of the current will readily effect what is required, without the use of expensive dredging vessels.

Archer's Island divided the river into two separate tortuous branches, and it was therefore found advantageous to shut up these two channels by dams, or embankments, and to form a new channel across the island, in a proper direction with the course of the river above and below.

The channel which passed from the main channel near the Farmer's bar, south of Gilliam's Island, has been shut up by a dam, so as to confine the whole of the waters of the river to the main channel across the Farmer's bar.

The mouths of all lateral streams or tributaries of the Appomattox were, as much as possible, carried in the direction of the main stream of the river.

Tidal observations were made during the progress of the improvement, at the different stations between Petersburg and the Brick-house, which showed the favorable change which had been effected in the propagation of the tide, and that the executed works had answered the intended end.

Our main object was, considering the disposable means, to equalize the bottom of the bed, with such constructed works as would not disturb the flow of the water, and create a depth of seven feet below zero, or datum of the water-meter fixed at the wharf at Petersburg, which was the extent of the contemplated improvement of the river Appomattox.

The progress of the improvement of the river was not only retarded by the detached low works, but was mainly owing to

the circumstance that the river could not, for want of funds, be conveyed from the Farmer's bar, at the head of Gilliam's Island, to the Point of Rocks, in a regular channel of proper breadth and direction.

It was contemplated to carry the river from the Farmer's bar, opposite Hare's, in an easy curved bed, to opposite Gilliam's, into the southern channel, and to shut up by dams all secondary channels, so as to force all the water of the river into this new bed, in order to produce a sufficient scouring power to form a proper transverse sectional area for the passage of the currents. The mass of water, thus confined in a permanent direction by proper works, would be able to maintain a greater depth at low water than previously.

The waters of the Swift Creek to be conveyed through the northern channel in a single confined bed to the Point of Rocks, where it unites with the southern channel, and from here flows united in a single bed to James River.

If the above-mentioned channel had been opened, as traced in 1824, there remains no doubt in our mind, that all that is requisite would have been effected to secure a greater and more regular depth of water from Petersburg to the Point of Rocks.

Had even the lower Appomattox Company continued to act upon the views as contained in the report of 1824, to the directors of the company, they would undoubtedly have effected in the reach of the river above the Brick-house, without much labor and money, a greater vertical rise in the tide, and consequent greater depth, by the reduction of the surface of the river at low water.

The arrivals of vessels, drawing six to seven feet water, at the wharves of Petersburg, instead, as formerly, of three feet, are indisputable proof of the great improvement which has taken place in the river. The correctness of the views as contained in the above report, is also apparent from the fact that a more regular depth has been established along the course of the river in the mid-channel or fair-way. In no instance has it happened that deposits have been made in the bed of the river, in time of a freshet, where the river was properly confined by banks.

It would rather be a strange attempt to ascertain the amount of materials deposited in a single freshet, were the river confined within a proper bed by permanent banks, in a judicious direction.

Much benefit has been afforded to the navigation, in producing an increased body of water by an actual deepening of the channel, and removal of most of the obstructions from it, thus giving a straight and fair passage for the tide, which begins now to flow at Petersburg sooner than before; and thus the advantages of an increased depth, due to the presence of the tide, are proportionally increased throughout the whole tidal compartment.

The effects of the different works cannot be precisely stated, because there were lost, by fire, in November, 1847, all the papers relating to the improvement of the river; but from the subjoined extract of a report, dated Petersburg, Va., September, 1849, it is evident that the depth of water has at least been increased from three to four feet, although the works have been neglected.

This gain of from three to four feet available depth in the navigation has been of the greatest importance. No moving power is so cheap and advantageous as that produced by a tidal navigation, which is at one and the same time the road that carries and the locomotive power.

Yet the formation of a canal of twelve feet navigable depth, from Petersburg to the Point of Rocks, or ship navigation, has once become a favorite scheme with the citizens of the town. We must not wonder at the assertion, that goods can be transported cheaper on the railroad, from City Point to Petersburg, than on the river Appomattox.

The following is an extract from the report of the committee to examine the state of the river Appomattox, from the wharf at Petersburg to Straton Rocks, or ship navigation, given in a letter from Jabez Smith, Esq., chairman of said committee, dated Petersburg, September 21, 1849:—

"From the Long Wharf at Petersburg, to Blandford Cut, we found $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 feet of water; at the mouth of the cut about 7 feet 8 inches; over the rocks in the cut, near the mouth, 8 feet water, increasing to $8\frac{1}{2}$, 9, and 10 feet, and at the lower end of the cut 13 feet; found some rock near the middle of the cut washed naked at 10 to 11 feet; about 150 yards below the lower end of the Blandford Cut, there is only 6 feet 6 inches water, at common tide. From here the depth increases to $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet and 8 feet at the Spring, and $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet at Bates' Old Wharf; and from there down to the Step-bar $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and the same where was once the Step-bar. From here down we found generally, fully $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet water, to the mouth of Archer's Island Cut, and through the cut $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and at the lower end 9 feet, and occasionally 10 feet; and from the cut $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 feet water to the Farmer's bar, which has also $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet water. The works we find wanting repairs."

From the above report it appears also that the works, and in fact the whole river, as far as relates to the improvements, has been entirely neglected, since the operations were discontinued. This is the more to be regretted, as several of the works were executed in a manner to require constant attention and care to produce the desired effect, with the least expense; for instance, the fences which were erected to diminish the velocity, and permit deposit between them, in order to form new and higher banks. The continuation of planting the low and shelving

sand-banks along the course of the river with willows, would also have produced a very beneficial effect in raising by deposit these lands above common high water, and thus have confined the waters more and more to the main channel.

The above examination of the river has satisfactorily proved, that the works, which were designed with the above views, have produced very beneficial results, and that no bar has been deposited by the alterations.

Correct surveys and observations will show that, at present, the vertical rise of the tide at Petersburg is greater, and the fall or low water from Petersburg to City Point is less than in 1824; that the rise of the tide at City Point and Petersburg is not the same; and that an increase has taken place in the propagation of the flood, and its duration.

Besides, it will be found by a correct survey, accompanied by accurate longitudinal and transverse sections and observations, and which should always go before forming any design of improvement, that the capabilities of the river are fully ample to admit of a still greater available depth.

MOBILE, September, 1853.

Art. IX.—FREE BANKING IN THE SOUTHWEST.

[The following brief notes were drawn up by the Editor, at the request of a gentleman in the Southwest, and are by the same request inserted in the Review.]

It will be admitted on all hands, that the great evil under which the whole Southwest is laboring, is the want of adequate capital to conduct the great enterprises in railroads and manufactories, which are necessary to the development of its resources, and the increase of its weight and influence in the Union.

It is but a few days ago that the New-Orleans and Nashville Railroad Company, passing, in a great portion of its extent, through the State of Mississippi, failing to obtain that capital at home which was necessary to its speedy construction, sought, and was disappointed in procuring, the aid of foreign capitalists.

If the Southwest would secure, in aid of her enterprises, the capital which is ever seeking investment, as product seeks a market, in every part of the Union, or abroad, she must adopt the course pursued by other sections—furnish secure, ready, and permanent means of its investment, under a just and liberal system of laws.

It matters not in what way the capital invited is invested; whether in lands, or in negroes, in factories, in railroads, in banking, or in general commerce. The great and leading consideration is, that it be invited, that it comes, and that it is retained and permanently invested.

Upon the subject of banking, some facts are well ascertained.

The whole system of bond and mortgage, of pledge, of principal and surety, upon which commercial credit, and a large part of the operations of society, in every community, are based, has precisely the same foundation as that of banking.

The mortgage, the pledge, the security, may, and in not a few cases, does prove inadequate; but on this account has the whole system, so necessary to the convenience, and even necessities of the community, been abandoned?

The private note of an individual receives currency and credit in proportion as it is supposed to be supported by a fund adequate to its redemption; and where that fund is undisputed, and largely above the obligation, this note may approximate to the character and value of a mortgage. About such notes the community are seldom deceived.

Why are the community ever or more frequently deceived in regard to the value of a bank note? It is, that the fund for its redemption, unlike that of an individual, is generally out of sight, and that the proportion sustained between the number of notes and the extent of the fund is difficult, sometimes impossible, to be ascertained.

Remove the two difficulties, let the extent of the fund and that of the issue, or of the mortgages based upon it, be clearly ascertained, and brought home to each individual in the community at every moment that a bank note is offered to him, and let the information amount to the nature of a demonstration, and who can doubt that a bank note will be a species of property as substantial and as enduring as an acre of land, as a negro, a house, or a mortgage upon any or all of these?

The opponents of a banking system, and they have been supported by too many melancholy examples, assert and maintain the impossibility of establishing a basis of paper issue which shall carry convertibility on its face, and fix in just and invariable proportions the relations of capital and credit, of means and liabilities. These constitute an extreme party in every community.

Another party, equally impressed with the evils of the system as it has existed, equally distrustful of its promises, believe and maintain that the conveniences of commerce and industry are so essentially subserved and promoted by the facilities of transfer of credit and capital, involved in the idea of a bank, that it is

well worthy the attention of every thinking mind whether these benefits, after all, may not by some wise check, expedient, or device, be retained and enjoyed—whether we have not reasoned too strongly, from *abuses*—whether, in fine, we are not rash and hasty in adopting sternly and adhering to measures of total exclusion.

This latter party, democratic, anti-bank, has, North, South, East, and West, and particularly and most strongly in Louisiana, formerly the most anti-bank of all, in its search for these wise checks, expedients, and devices to which we have referred, arrived at and established what is now called and well known as Free Banking.

What is Free Banking? 1. It is opposed to the system of monetary monopoly; and gives to every man in the community the same right by a system of general laws, and not by special charters, of lending his money, or of borrowing it, to the best advantage. It is a system for the poor as well as the rich. 2. It regulates infallibly the relation between the issue of notes and the basis upon which the issue is made; and this it does by making it imperative upon the party issuing to deposit first in the coffers of the State securities entirely adequate to their redemption, and these securities are defined to be the stocks of State and Federal Governments, unimpeachable, and paying interest; securities that are generally conceded among all men, and in all countries, to be the very best. When this deposit is made in the coffers of the State, subject to be examined at any moment by any citizen, then, and then only, is the issue authorized, and the authorization stamped upon every note of the issue by the signature of the officer of the State himself.

The experience of our neighbor States who have adopted this system is uniform in its favor, and establishes its perfect reliability. Under its influence, capital has been attracted, industry has revived, wealth and confidence and security have been infused throughout the body politic, and wide and general prosperity secured.

ART. X.—THE U. S. CENSUS FOR 1850.

With the opening of the New Year, we are happy to be able to present the readers of the Review with a brief abstract of the so long desired and so loudly clamored for Census of 1850. Thanks to the energetic and indefatigable exertions of the present Superintendent for this ponderous and invaluable work. It is an elaborate exposition of the numbers, character, condition, and resources of this great nation. It exhibits the progress of 23,000,000 of Americans, during the last ten years—a progress unparalleled in the history of the world—a progress which astonishes the mind, when we contemplate it, either alone, or in contrast with that of any nation of Europe, or of the world at large.

Many have expressed surprise, if not indignation, that a work of such immense importance, and which has cost the government so much, should have been delayed so long. But there are few who can form an adequate conception of the immense labor which such a work requires. It is not the work of a day, or of a month, or of a year, as any one can see, who will inspect the ponderous tome now before us, and consider that it is a condensed form of only a part of 640,000 pages of large folio schedules, which are yet to be bound for preservation and deposit in the archives of the nation, and which will make, of themselves alone, about 800 compact volumes, each almost "a load for a camel." The pages of these volumes are about the size of those of the *Baltimore Sun*, or of the *New-Orleans Picayune*.

The Census of 1840 made about 350 such volumes of schedules, and that of 1830, 150 volumes. This will begin to give an idea of the progress of the nation. It is much to be regretted that the Census schedules, or returns of 1790, 1800, 1810, and 1820, are still unbound, and lying in the Census Office, in the greatest confusion. They certainly should be gathered up, bound, and preserved, as the only authentic historical and statistical records of those early decennial periods of our national existence.

To give the reader some further idea of the enormous mass of materials out of which have been wrought, with immense labor, the results of the present Census, it is sufficient to say, that the amount of paper contained in the schedules is 3,000 reams, and weighing over 100 tons. All of this vast mass of printed schedules has passed through the U. S. Mail twice—once in being sent out to all the Marshals appointed to take the Census, and once in being returned; and it is remarkable that, in no instance, were any of them lost or damaged while being thus conveyed. The only loss sustained was that of a few of them by fire in California.*

The earliest returns received from the Marshals did not reach Washington until the 29th of August, 1850; and the last of them were not received until the 17th of February, 1852. The latest were those from California.

The number of medium paper schedules used by the Marshals was about 1,500,000. The number of Marshals, in all, was 45; and the number of Assistant Marshals, 3,231. The average number of clerks employed in the Census Office, in preparing the returns for publication, has been about 80 per year. Since the present Superintendent, Prof. J. D. B. De Bow, entered upon his duties, the average number employed has been 35. Since the 1st of July last, he has employed only about 15 clerks, who by excessive labor, working more hours per day than the law required, and until nine o'clock at night, have thus succeeded in enabling the Superintendent to lay the work before the country. The writer of this paper speaks from positive knowledge on this subject, being one of the corps of clerks of the Census Bureau.

* The returns from Santa Clara, California, were lost en route for Washington.

Many, throughout the country, have expressed, indignantly, the opinion, that the Census of 1850 might have been published sooner; but of this none are able to judge save those familiar with the amount and details of the work, and the difficulty of the task. They should compare the progress made with our Census, with that of other countries, and they will then discover that we are not much behind other nations in this respect. The English Census of 1851 is not complete yet, although they have been laboring on it over two years and eight months; and the French Census of 1851 is still only partially completed for publication. Only a part of it is published, and the rest is still in progress.

The Census of 1850 is the seventh that has been taken since the commencement of the government; that of 1790 being the first. The aggregate expense of the different Censuses has been as follows: That of

1790.....	\$44,377	1830.....	\$378,545
1800.....	66,109	1840.....	833,370
1810.....	178,444	1850, exclusive of final	
1820.....	208,525	printing, binding, etc.	1,318,027

The volume of the Census, as now published, is all that has been authorized by Congress; but by no means all. A vast amount of exceedingly valuable and interesting matter is still locked up in the schedules, awaiting publication. This matter omitted comprises *the entire industrial statistics of the nation*, besides the entire body of vital statistics, and those on various other important subjects—all of which have been taken and paid for by the government. They ought to be published, and we have no doubt that they will be. We really do not see why the government should go to so much expense in collecting all these valuable and interesting statistics, if, after all, they are not to be published, but suffered to lie on the shelves of the Census Office, perfectly inaccessible to the people, and therefore worthless.

We think that the U. S. Senate acted wisely in rejecting much of the matter that was proposed to them for publication by the previous Superintendent of the Census; but they made too sweeping a rejection, for they rejected much that was really valuable, and that properly belonged to the Census, in their laudable desire to get rid of a still larger amount of matter proposed for publication, which was really quite inappropriate, not being necessarily at all connected with the Census, nor to be found in the schedules, and, therefore, quite unauthorized. It was proposed, by the previous Superintendent, to publish a geographical and geological description of each State and territory of the Union, along with the statistics proper; but this, apart from its inappropriateness, would have swelled the Census to a number of enormous volumes, which would have made the expense to the government immense. Such a plan of publication was very wisely rejected. The balance still remaining unpublished strictly belongs to the Census, and would make only a moderate volume. Its importance to the people is great, and we therefore presume that Congress will order its immediate publication.

The present volume of the Census now before us contains — pages. We cannot, of course, in a single number of this Review, give a very extended notice of its various contents. We shall, however, without entering into minute details, give as many results as possible.

The total population of the United States, including all classes, taken decennially, since 1790, has been as follows:

1790.....	3,929,927	1830.....	12,866,020
1800.....	5,305,925	1840.....	17,069,453
1810.....	7,239,814	1850.....	22,191,876
1820.....	9,638,131		

The white, free colored, and slave population, since 1790, has been as follows:

	Whites.	Free Colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	3,172,464.....	59,466.....	697,897.....	3,929,827
1800.....	4,304,489.....	108,395.....	893,041.....	5,305,925
1810.....	5,862,004.....	186,446.....	1,191,364.....	7,239,814
1820.....	7,861,937.....	233,524.....	1,538,038.....	9,638,131
1830.....	10,537,378.....	319,599.....	2,009,043.....	12,866,020
1840.....	14,195,695.....	386,303.....	2,487,455.....	17,069,453
1850.....	19,553,068.....	434,495.....	3,204,313.....	23,191,876

This table does not include the Indians within the United States territories, in all, 400,764. Their numbers have increased as follows: In 1789, there were 76,000; in 1825, 129,366; and in 1850, 400,764.

The following table shows the ratio of increase in the United States of white, free colored, slaves, and total population, since 1790:*

CLASSES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	3,172,464..	4,304,489..	5,862,004..	7,861,937..	10,537,378..	14,195,695..	19,553,068
Free Colored.....	59,466..	108,395..	186,446..	223,524..	319,599..	386,303..	434,495
Slaves.....	697,897..	893,041..	1,191,364..	1,538,038..	2,009,043..	2,487,455..	3,204,313
Total Free.....	2,231,930..	4,412,884..	6,048,450..	8,195,461..	10,856,977..	14,581,998..	19,967,563
Total Colored.....	757,363..	1,001,436..	1,377,810..	1,771,562..	2,328,642..	2,873,758..	3,638,806

DECENNIAL INCREASE PER CENT. IN—

	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	35.08.....	36.18.....	34.19.....	34.03.....	34.72.....	37.74.....
Free Colored.....	82.28.....	72.....	25.25.....	36.80.....	20.67.....	12.47.....
Slaves.....	28.1.....	33.4.....	29.10.....	30.62.....	23.81.....	28.62.....
Total Free.....	97.72.....	37.00.....	35.5.....	32.47.....	34.31.....	37.07.....
Total Colored.....	32.23.....	37.58.....	28.59.....	51.45.....	23.41.....	26.02.....

The following gives the proportion of white, free colored, and slave population of the United States at each census period:

CLASSES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	80.73.....	81.13.....	80.97.....	81.57.....	81.90.....	83.16.....	84.31.....
Free Colored.....	1.51.....	2.....	2.58.....	2.42.....	2.48.....	2.36.....	1.81.....
Slaves.....	17.76.....	16.83.....	16.46.....	15.96.....	15.69.....	14.57.....	13.82.....

The following table gives the proportion of sexes, at each census since 1790:

	1790.	1800.†	1810.†	1820.†
WHITES.	As	As	As	As
Males.....	1,615,625.. 100..	2,204,421.. 100..	2,967,571.. 100..	3,995,133.. 100..
Females.....	1,556,839.. 96.4..	2,100,069.. 95.3..	2,874,433.. 96.3..	3,866,804.. 96.8..
		1830.	1840.	1850.
Males.....		5,366,963.. 100..	7,235,534.. 100..	10,026,402.. 100..
Females.....		5,171,115.. 96.4..	6,040,161.. 95.6..	9,526,666.. 95..
FREE COLORED.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Males.....	114,966.....	153,453.....	186,481.....	208,724.....
Females.....	123,190.. 107.2..	166,146.. 108.3..	199,822.. 107.3..	225,771.. 108.2..
SLAVES.				
Males.....	788,028.. —..	1,012,823.. —..	1,246,517.. —..	1,602,535.. —..
Females.....	750,010.. 95.2..	996,220.. 98.4..	1,246,338.. 99.5..	1,601,778.. 99.9..

* In all of the ratio tables that have been framed in the office, no attention has been paid to the fact that between 1820 and 1830 only nine years and ten months elapsed, nor have the accretions of population, from annexations of new territory, &c., been taken into consideration. These matters are worthy of separate and special attention, for which time does not now admit.

† No discrimination of the sexes in the colored population at these enumerations.

The following is a very interesting table, giving the employments of the free male population of the United States over fifteen years, for 1850:

States and Territories.	Commerce, trade, manufactures, mechanic arts, and mining.	Agriculture.	Labor, not agricultural.	Army.	Sea and river navigation.	Learned Professions.	Other pursuits requiring education.	Government and civil service.	Domestic serv'ts.	Occupations not specified.	Total.
Maine.....	38,247	77,062	26,823	114	15,040	2,219	1,237	410	233	106	162,711
New-Hampshire.....	27,905	47,440	14,953	28	778	1,642	1,435	305	47	31	94,564
Vermont.....	17,063	48,327	22,007	159	1,597	1,527	1,543	120	34	127	92,236
Massachusetts.....	146,002	53,699	57,943	73	10,598	4,702	5,371	1,560	1,375	2,072	235,300
Rhode Island.....	31,004	8,482	9,306	—	9,033	4,556	5,781	176	774	297	43,471
Connecticut.....	38,653	31,881	16,813	—	4,801	1,614	2,168	189	220	677	97,010
New-York.....	312,697	313,980	196,613	1,669	23,243	14,256	11,104	4,985	6,234	2,663	688,294
Pennsylvania.....	46,544	32,834	28,283	—	4,351	1,731	2,457	373	404	1,663	128,740
Pennsylvania.....	206,927	207,495	163,628	101	0,064	9,954	10,830	3,719	4,431	4,403	680,644
Delaware.....	5,633	7,884	6,663	—	743	251	581	124	69	113	22,061
Maryland.....	47,616	26,588	32,102	67	0,040	2,030	2,442	963	1,021	278	124,876
District of Columbia.....	6,138	421	2,532	91	186	330	436	559	607	16	11,509
Virginia.....	82,675	108,364	48,338	574	3,263	4,791	5,693	1,401	79	1,978	236,575
North Carolina.....	30,613	81,982	28,560	—	1,650	2,263	3,447	570	46	24	130,867
South Carolina.....	13,205	41,302	8,151	—	246	1,829	3,101	379	149	46	68,849
Georgia.....	20,715	53,302	11,505	18	283	2,815	3,943	416	15	173	123,143
Florida.....	2,380	5,077	2,660	433	708	357	302	368	19	47	13,467
Alabama.....	16,830	68,633	7,693	—	807	2,010	3,638	325	42	97	100,667
Mississippi.....	12,023	50,384	6,067	—	292	2,329	3,380	377	60	231	72,682
Louisiana.....	32,679	18,639	15,264	45	4,363	1,337	2,444	811	508	468	77,168
Texas.....	7,237	25,299	6,194	584	321	1,368	906	677	—	69	42,853
Tennessee.....	4,356	28,942	5,684	33	108	911	676	110	—	97	42,798
Kentucky.....	23,432	118,979	17,359	—	258	2,263	3,569	703	10	845	186,940
Ohio.....	36,598	115,017	28,413	504	1,027	2,811	4,490	902	212	471	301,075
Michigan.....	142,687	270,302	92,760	—	4,109	9,001	8,203	1,915	1,167	1,919	538,792
Indiana.....	22,575	65,815	15,602	143	1,220	2,907	1,092	337	320	167	108,978
Illinois.....	45,218	163,229	20,854	—	725	2,929	3,031	677	184	419	248,698
Wisconsin.....	30,232	111,099	20,778	—	1,644	3,207	2,071	701	376	151	215,259
Missouri.....	30,698	65,561	50,326	305	9,471	2,593	3,147	707	1,456	1,119	182,173
Iowa.....	9,235	32,779	5,392	—	163	1,077	425	103	10	140	48,315
Wisconsin.....	20,226	40,980	13,190	77	561	1,477	800	185	191	146	79,189
California.....	69,007	2,030	3,771	180	617	1,077	198	130	710	123	77,631
Minnesota.....	1,656	563	751	143	4	68	130	59	15	30	77,631
New-Mexico Territory.....	1,054	7,950	6,209	655	3	68	45	204	15	90	17,478
Oregon Territory.....	1,067	1,704	511	280	130	90	46	40	40	6	2,674
Utah Territory.....	828	1,281	622	—	18	36	45	—	—	—	2,133
Total.....	1,596,362,400,293	993,623	570	116,341	94,515	93,814	34,966	32,343	22,159	—	5,371,676

The following table is very comprehensive. It exhibits the total population, and the number of births, marriages, deaths, dwellings and families, for 1850:

States, Territories, &c.	Population.		Births and Marriages during the year ending June 1, 1850.		Deaths during the year ending June 1, 1850.		White and free col'd population.	
	White and free col'd.	Slaves.	Total.	White and free col'd.	Slaves.	Total.	No. of dwellings.	No. of families.
Maine.....	583,169	—	481,169	12,993	—	12,993	93,802	103,333
New Hampshire.....	317,076	—	317,076	6,111	—	6,111	57,330	62,267
Vermont.....	314,176	—	314,176	6,394	—	6,394	56,431	58,573
Massachusetts.....	914,000	—	914,000	23,192	—	23,192	192,835	192,675
Rhode Island.....	147,545	—	147,545	2,610	—	2,610	22,379	25,316
Connecticut.....	370,792	—	370,792	7,646	—	7,646	64,013	73,448
New York.....	3,097,234	—	3,097,234	76,337	—	76,337	473,930	660,800
New Jersey.....	489,336	—	489,336	13,556	—	13,556	81,064	89,080
Pennsylvania.....	2,317,784	—	2,317,784	64,331	—	64,331	386,316	408,407
Delaware.....	93,900	—	93,900	2,554	—	2,554	38,316	40,407
Maryland.....	489,666	—	489,666	14,066	—	14,066	15,290	15,430
District of Columbia.....	48,000	—	48,000	1,248	—	1,248	81,708	87,384
Virginia.....	919,131	—	919,131	25,133	—	25,133	165,815	167,330
North Carolina.....	580,418	—	580,418	16,648	—	16,648	104,996	105,451
South Carolina.....	583,531	—	583,531	6,607	—	6,607	52,643	52,937
Georgia.....	584,563	—	584,563	15,239	—	15,239	91,011	91,471
Florida.....	87,445	—	87,445	1,322	—	1,322	9,023	9,107
Alabama.....	349,310	—	349,310	8,110	—	8,110	73,070	73,786
Mississippi.....	303,878	—	303,878	5,687	—	5,687	51,081	52,107
Louisiana.....	344,870	—	344,870	7,399	—	7,399	40,101	41,112
Texas.....	163,707	—	163,707	7,282	—	7,282	27,988	28,461
Arkansas.....	163,707	—	163,707	4,465	—	4,465	26,252	26,461
Tennessee.....	763,239	—	763,239	20,691	—	20,691	120,419	130,004
Kentucky.....	521,093	—	521,093	12,632	—	12,632	120,700	130,920
Missouri.....	631,432	—	631,432	2,669	—	2,669	96,840	100,890
Illinois.....	631,470	—	631,470	10,681	—	10,681	146,544	149,153
Indiana.....	988,416	—	988,416	23,396	—	23,396	170,178	171,564
Ohio.....	1,860,329	—	1,860,329	56,884	—	56,884	236,098	246,514
Michigan.....	367,694	—	367,694	10,898	—	10,898	71,616	73,611
Wisconsin.....	805,291	—	805,291	10,434	—	10,434	57,316	57,608
Iowa.....	192,314	—	192,314	6,099	—	6,099	32,902	33,517
California.....	6,077	—	6,077	273	—	273	23,742	24,567
Minnesota Territory.....	61,547	—	61,547	168	—	168	1,002	1,016
New Mexico Territory.....	61,547	—	61,547	1,233	—	1,233	13,453	13,502
Oregon Territory.....	11,360	—	11,360	310	—	310	2,374	2,374
Utah Territory.....	11,360	—	11,360	432	—	432	2,322	2,322
Total.....	19,067,589	3,204,357	22,271,946	548,635	60,609	609,244	3,303,143	3,498,045

* The figures include those only who were surviving on this day, and therefore are but approximated.

The free colored population in the United States, in 1850, was as follows:

Maine.....	1,356	Mississippi.....	930
New-Hampshire.....	520	Louisiana.....	17,462
Vermont.....	718	Texas.....	397
Massachusetts.....	9,664	Arkansas.....	608
Rhode Island.....	3,670	Tennessee.....	6,422
Connecticut.....	7,693	Kentucky.....	10,011
New-York.....	40,069	Missouri.....	2,618
New-Jersey.....	23,810	Illinois.....	5,436
Pennsylvania.....	53,626	Indiana.....	11,262
Delaware.....	18,073	Ohio.....	23,279
Maryland.....	74,723	Michigan.....	2,583
District of Columbia.....	10,059	Wisconsin.....	635
Virginia.....	54,333	Iowa.....	333
North Carolina.....	27,463	California.....	902
South Carolina.....	8,960	Minnesota Territory.....	39
Georgia.....	2,931	New-Mexico Territory.....	22
Florida.....	939	Oregon Territory.....	207
Alabama.....	2,365	Utah Territory.....	24

Total.....434,495

Of these, 208,736 were males, and 225,759 females; the excess of the latter over the former being 17,023. All were born in the United States, except 4,067 born in foreign countries.

The following table is very valuable, as showing the progress of the population of the several states since 1790:

States and Territories.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine.....	96,540..	151,719..	228,705..	298,335..	399,455..	501,793..	583,169
New-Hampshire.....	141,899..	183,762..	214,360..	244,161..	269,328..	284,574..	317,978
Vermont.....	85,416..	154,465..	217,713..	235,764..	260,632..	291,948..	314,130
Massachusetts.....	378,717..	423,245..	472,040..	522,267..	610,408..	737,690..	904,514
Rhode Island.....	69,110..	69,122..	77,031..	83,059..	97,199..	108,830..	147,545
Connecticut.....	238,141..	251,002..	262,043..	275,903..	297,675..	309,978..	370,792
	1,009,823..	1,233,315..	1,471,801..	1,650,808..	1,954,717..	2,234,822..	2,728,116
New-York.....	340,120..	586,756..	959,049..	1,372,812..	1,918,608..	2,428,921..	3,097,394
New-Jersey.....	184,139..	211,949..	245,559..	277,575..	320,823..	373,300..	459,555
Pennsylvania.....	434,373..	602,363..	810,091..	1,049,438..	1,348,233..	1,724,033..	2,311,786
Delaware.....	50,096..	64,373..	72,674..	72,749..	76,748..	78,083..	91,332
Maryland.....	319,728..	341,548..	380,546..	407,330..	447,040..	470,019..	583,034
Dis. of Columbia.....	—	14,093..	24,022..	33,039..	39,834..	43,712..	51,687
	1,337,456..	1,820,084..	2,491,938..	3,212,983..	4,151,286..	5,118,076..	6,624,968
Virginia.....	748,308..	880,200..	974,022..	1,065,379..	1,211,405..	1,239,797..	1,421,661
North Carolina.....	393,751..	478,103..	555,500..	638,829..	737,987..	753,419..	869,039
South Carolina.....	249,073..	345,591..	415,115..	502,741..	581,185..	664,398..	668,507
Georgia.....	82,548..	162,101..	252,433..	340,987..	516,823..	691,392..	906,185
Florida.....	—	—	—	—	34,730..	54,477..	87,445
	1,473,680..	1,865,995..	2,197,670..	2,547,936..	3,082,130..	3,330,483..	3,952,837
Alabama.....	—	—	—	144,317..	309,537..	560,756..	771,623
Mississippi.....	—	8,850..	40,352..	75,448..	136,621..	275,651..	606,526
Louisiana.....	—	—	76,556..	153,407..	215,739..	352,411..	517,762
Texas.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	212,592
Arkansas.....	—	—	—	14,373..	30,388..	97,574..	209,897
Tennessee.....	35,791..	105,602..	201,727..	422,813..	691,904..	829,270..	1,002,717
	35,791..	114,452..	378,635..	810,258..	1,374,179..	2,245,602..	3,321,117
Missouri.....	—	—	20,845..	66,566..	140,455..	383,702..	662,044
Kentucky.....	73,077..	220,955..	406,511..	564,317..	687,917..	779,898..	982,405
Ohio.....	—	45,365..	230,760..	581,434..	937,903..	1,519,467..	1,980,339
Indiana.....	—	4,875..	24,530..	147,178..	343,031..	685,866..	988,416
Illinois.....	—	—	12,282..	55,211..	157,445..	476,193..	851,470
Michigan.....	—	—	4,702..	8,906..	31,630..	212,267..	397,654
Wisconsin.....	—	—	—	—	—	30,945..	305,391
Iowa.....	—	—	—	—	—	43,112..	192,214
	73,077..	271,195..	696,680..	1,423,622..	2,298,390..	4,131,370..	6,379,923
California.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	92,597
Minnesota.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,077
New-Mexico.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	61,547
Oregon.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	13,294
Utah.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,380
	—	—	—	—	—	—	184,895
Aggregate.....	5,929,827..	5,305,925..	7,220,814..	9,654,506..	12,866,020..	17,009,453..	22,191,875

The following table exhibits the proportion of white males to females, in 1850. For every 100 males there are, in the different states, of the ages mentioned, the following number of females:

States and Territories.	Infancy.					Youth.					Maturity.					Old Age.					Extremes of age.	
	Under 5.	5.	10.	15.	20.	Under 15.	15.	20.	30.	40.	Under 30.	30.	40.	50.	60.	Under 60.	70.	80.	90.	100.	100 and upwards.	Age unknown.
Maine.....	96.2	97.04	96.63	96.96	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53	93.53
New-Hampshire.....	97.31	96.86	96.64	111.23	102.53	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34	103.34
Vermont.....	95.69	95.9	95.96	93.96	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48	93.48
Massachusetts.....	95.98	99.18	97.77	114.68	103.68	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6
Rhode Island.....	99.64	100.20	100.17	100.15	103.68	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6
Connecticut.....	97.58	98.75	95.67	103.17	99.46	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7
New-York.....	98.11	98.19	98.48	100.19	99.86	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13	91.13
New-Jersey.....	97.8	98.26	95.89	100.06	102.27	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89	95.89
Pennsylvania.....	97.55	98.89	96.12	100.06	98.74	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38	92.38
Delaware.....	98.38	98.04	94.78	103.67	99.7	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5
Maryland.....	98.78	98.03	94.78	103.67	99.7	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5
District of Columbia.....	95.92	100.61	103.66	131.38	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12	112.12
Virginia.....	95.42	96.15	95.88	103.99	100.08	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0
North Carolina.....	95.14	96.6	95.08	103.3	107.53	108.22	107.01	109.41	117.56	114.04	107.78	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
South Carolina.....	95.0	97.06	96.23	105.43	107.53	108.22	107.01	109.41	117.56	114.04	107.78	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
Georgia.....	93.94	96.42	96.23	105.43	107.53	108.22	107.01	109.41	117.56	114.04	107.78	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
Florida.....	94.25	95.69	91.34	103.16	97.0	95.90	92.42	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97	92.97
Alabama.....	93.56	97.89	96.4	109.72	96.99	84.69	85.83	79.69	83.59	86.73	92.3	80.15	66.5	92.5	160.0	96.43	90.38	90.38	90.38	90.38	90.38	90.38
Mississippi.....	93.92	96.97	93.15	107.95	96.99	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87	74.87
Louisiana.....	97.24	98.19	98.25	117.68	79.95	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84	54.84
Texas.....	95.53	92.49	91.4	103.02	74.89	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78	60.78
Arkansas.....	95.68	95.81	93.69	99.24	87.13	73.88	74.32	71.22	69.17	67.15	118.84	108.88	121.43	91.07	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67
Tennessee.....	96.19	96.6	95.19	109.79	100.7	98.49	101.25	91.89	98.11	94.78	94.88	108.88	121.43	91.07	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67
Kentucky.....	95.75	96.16	95.89	101.63	92.58	85.98	88.77	80.1	90.76	90.63	97.3	101.69	110.71	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67	66.67
Missouri.....	95.64	96.32	95.95	100.15	85.76	73.01	77.18	76.87	80.9	82.16	74.0	71.0	61.67	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75	63.75
Illinois.....	96.59	95.66	92.73	97.4	88.88	79.13	60.5	78.6	85.1	84.18	66.18	50.0	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44
Indiana.....	95.98	95.08	94.44	90.49	92.58	86.78	80.9	78.6	85.1	84.18	66.18	50.0	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44
Ohio.....	97.13	97.1	96.51	103.77	94.18	88.87	87.44	91.71	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57	84.57
Michigan.....	96.34	93.87	93.19	97.9	83.69	71.45	72.69	79.92	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07	73.07
Wisconsin.....	96.39	95.15	92.14	101.74	93.68	76.67	73.53	77.31	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7	79.7
Iowa.....	96.32	93.61	91.7	101.01	3.57	4.39	6.01	8.97	17.78	29.69	53.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33	33.33
California.....	91.7	93.61	87.96	102.66	48.90	34.86	45.17	41.08	58.97	17.65	66.67	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46
Minnesota Territory.....	102.42	96.07	87.96	102.66	48.90	34.86	45.17	41.08	58.97	17.65	66.67	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46	110.52	47.46
New-Mexico Territory.....	90.41	96.25	91.06	120.97	90.11	80.85	82.3	67.72	82.75	64.43	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Utah Territory.....	92.57	102.07	96.51	77.53	33.77	40.63	47.0	38.76	37.03	31.52	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Utah Territory.....	95.53	95.07	100.39	101.06	70.46	78.58	78.75	54.7	94.0	70.97	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0	300.0

In the following table we have the increase of the white and free colored population, in the slaveholding states, since 1790. An inspection of the table shows that the increase of the white population, in the slave states, during the last ten years, has been greater than during any previous decade; that the free colored population has been very rapidly decreasing since

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1790; and, during the last decade, more rapidly than during any previous one. The slave population, it will be seen, has made about the same increase during the last ten years, as during the first decade of this century:

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
White.....	1,271,488	1,702,980	2,208,785	2,831,560	3,660,758	4,632,530	6,222,418
Free col'd.....	32,357	61,241	108,265	134,164	180,726	215,575	238,187
Slaves.....	657,327	857,093	1,163,854	1,517,400	2,005,475	2,486,326	3,204,051

	Decennial increase per cent. in					
	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
White.....	33.93	29.7	28.2	29.28	26.54	34.32
Free colored.....	89.27	76.78	23.92	34.7	19.28	10.49
Slaves.....	30.35	35.79	30.38	32.16	23.98	28.87

We compile the following table, with care, from the Census, for the purpose of showing the number, sex, and longevity of the slave population of the United States in 1850:

States, Territories, &c.	50 and under 60.	60 and under 70.	70 and under 80.	80 and under 90.	90 and under 100.	100 and upw'ds.	Total.	Aggregate.
Maine.....	31	36	27	42	17	6	174	9,300
New-Hampshire.....	30	22	8	11	510	510	1,116	4,421
Delaware.....	1,926	1,850	1,187	1,175	510	510	43,944	90,368
Maryland.....	53	129	44	70	12	29	2,305	3,687
District of Columbia.....	12,138	10,850	7,614	6,981	3,028	2,964	240,562	472,598
Virginia.....	8,814	6,327	3,637	3,606	1,580	1,605	143,967	288,548
North Carolina.....	8,771	8,750	5,496	5,502	2,008	2,022	187,756	384,984
South Carolina.....	6,584	6,560	4,384	4,544	1,369	1,359	197,225	381,682
Georgia.....	6,685	708	474	397	141	126	19,804	30,310
Florida.....	6,366	6,030	3,774	3,451	1,068	959	171,804	342,844
Alabama.....	4,854	4,300	3,139	2,689	925	771	154,674	304,878
Mississippi.....	5,055	4,964	3,032	2,338	937	771	154,674	304,878
Louisiana.....	5,055	4,964	3,032	2,338	937	771	154,674	304,878
Texas.....	888	869	373	332	100	93	28,709	58,101
Arkansas.....	653	580	378	339	75	88	28,709	58,101
Tennessee.....	4,421	4,468	2,950	2,137	719	833	23,442	47,100
Kentucky.....	37,44	2,985	1,819	2,133	621	613	118,780	239,459
Missouri.....	1,136	1,291	535	632	141	239	105,063	210,981
Illinois.....							43,484	87,422
Indiana.....								
Ohio.....								
Michigan.....								
Wisconsin.....								
Iowa.....								
California.....								
Minnesota Territory.....								
Oregon Territory.....								
Utah Territory.....								
New-Mexico Territory.....								
Total.....	65,354	61,762	38,102	36,569	12,166	13,688	4,378	1,601,460
Aggregate.....	1,601,460	1,601,460	1,601,460	1,601,460	1,601,460	1,601,460	1,601,460	3,204,312

From the preceding table, it will be seen that there are in the United States 1,425 slaves over 100 years, and 2,684 between 90 and 100 years of age.

The number of adults, in the United States, in 1850, over twenty years of age, who could not read and write, was as follows :

States and Territories.	Whites.		Free Colored.		Native.	Foreign.	Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Maine.....	3,259	2,688	77	56	2,134	4,148	6,282
New-Hampshire.....	1,002	1,295	26	26	945	2,064	3,009
Vermont.....	3,001	2,588	32	19	616	5,624	6,240
Massachusetts.....	11,578	15,961	375	431	1,861	26,484	28,345
Rhode Island.....	1,330	2,010	130	137	1,248	2,359	3,607
Connecticut.....	2,037	2,702	192	275	1,203	4,013	5,306
New-York.....	30,178	52,115	3,387	4,042	30,670	68,055	98,722
New-Jersey.....	6,007	8,241	2,167	2,230	12,787	5,878	18,965
Pennsylvania.....	24,360	42,548	4,115	5,239	51,283	24,969	76,272
Delaware.....	2,012	2,524	2,724	2,991	9,777	404	10,181
Maryland.....	8,557	12,258	8,422	11,640	38,426	3,451	41,877
District of Columbia.....	601	856	1,106	2,108	4,349	322	4,677
Virginia.....	30,244	46,761	5,141	6,374	87,383	1,137	88,520
North Carolina.....	25,239	47,327	3,699	3,758	80,083	340	80,423
South Carolina.....	5,897	9,788	421	459	16,460	104	16,564
Georgia.....	10,552	24,648	208	259	41,261	466	41,667
Florida.....	1,730	3,123	116	154	3,534	295	4,129
Alabama.....	13,163	20,594	108	127	33,553	139	33,992
Mississippi.....	5,525	7,883	75	48	13,447	81	13,528
Louisiana.....	9,842	1,879	1,038	2,351	18,339	6,271	24,610
Texas.....	4,958	5,537	34	24	8,093	2,488	10,583
Arkansas.....	6,810	10,009	61	53	16,908	87	16,995
Tennessee.....	28,469	49,053	508	591	78,114	505	78,619
Kentucky.....	27,754	38,933	1,431	1,588	67,339	2,347	69,706
Missouri.....	14,458	21,823	271	296	34,917	1,861	36,778
Illinois.....	10,633	23,431	603	624	33,336	5,947	41,283
Indiana.....	26,132	44,408	1,024	1,146	69,445	3,255	72,710
Ohio.....	22,994	38,036	2,360	2,624	66,938	9,082	66,020
Michigan.....	4,037	3,873	201	168	5,272	3,009	8,281
Wisconsin.....	2,930	3,431	55	37	1,551	4,902	6,453
Iowa.....	2,928	5,192	15	18	7,076	1,077	8,153
California.....	4,237	881	88	29	2,318	2,917	5,235
Minnesota Territory.....	369	960	—	—	259	390	649
New-Mexico.....	13,334	11,731	2	2	24,429	660	25,090
Oregon.....	80	71	3	2	90	63	163
Utah.....	88	63	1	—	121	33	154

Total.....389,664.....573,234.....40,722.....49,800.....856,306.....195,114.....1,033,420

The above table furnishes matter for much reflection and comment. It shows that one person in every twenty-three adults, in the United States, in 1850, could neither read nor write. It also shows that education is distributed among the white male and female population very unequally, the uneducated males being to the uneducated females in the proportion of about 3 to 5; or, in other words, where there were three uneducated males, there were five uneducated females. This is on the supposition that the males and females are equal in number, which is very nearly correct.

The total value of church property and of "church accommodations,"* in 1850, was as follows :

States and Territories.	Total Accommodations.	Church Property.	States and Territories.	Total Accommodations.	Church Property.
Maine.....	321,167	\$1,725,845	Louisiana.....	109,615	\$1,782,479
New-Hampshire.....	237,417	1,405,786	Texas.....	63,575	904,930
Vermont.....	234,534	1,216,188	Arkansas.....	60,226	89,815
Massachusetts.....	691,833	10,306,184	Tennessee.....	625,595	1,216,101
Rhode Island.....	101,210	1,254,400	Kentucky.....	671,033	2,232,448
Connecticut.....	307,299	3,553,194	Missouri.....	251,068	1,561,610
New-York.....	1,913,854	21,134,307	Illinois.....	486,576	1,482,183
New-Jersey.....	345,723	3,680,936	Indiana.....	709,655	1,589,585
Pennsylvania.....	1,574,873	11,586,115	Ohio.....	1,457,294	5,795,099
Delaware.....	53,741	340,345	Michigan.....	120,117	725,600
Maryland.....	379,465	3,947,864	Wisconsin.....	97,773	353,800
District of Columbia.....	54,120	368,000	Iowa.....	43,083	177,425
Virginia.....	856,436	2,856,076	California.....	10,300	267,800
North Carolina.....	572,294	605,553	Minnesota Ter.....	100	900
South Carolina.....	460,459	2,172,246	New-Mexico Ter.....	100	94,100
Georgia.....	627,107	1,269,359	Oregon Territory.....	28,650	76,520
Florida.....	44,960	165,400	Utah Territory.....	3,133	51,000
Alabama.....	439,605	1,131,616		4,309	—
Mississippi.....	294,104	755,542			

Total..... 14,234,825.....\$87,336,601

* By "Church Accommodations," is meant the number of hearers a church can accommodate.

The value of the church property of some of the principal denominations was as follows:

Presbyterian.....	\$14,543,780	German Reformed.....	\$975,080
Baptists.....	11,020,855	Jews.....	330,600
Methodists.....	14,822,870	Lutherans.....	2,854,386
Roman Catholics.....	9,356,728	Mennonites.....	93,345
Unitarian.....	3,173,822	Moravians.....	411,667
Universalists.....	1,752,316	Orthodox Congregational.....	17,350
Episcopalian.....	11,375,010	Swedenborgian.....	108,600
Congregationalists.....	7,970,195	Tunkers.....	37,625
Christian.....	847,036	Union.....	644,715
Dutch Reformed.....	4,096,880	Other minor sects.....	967,930
Free.....	263,205		
Friends.....	1,713,767		
		Total.....	\$57,238,801

The Census of 1850 does not give the number of church members of each denomination, which is much to be regretted. The number of "church accommodations" of each sect is of little importance, as it merely shows how many people the churches are capable of holding. Some denominations have very large churches, but very few church members. The census schedules are susceptible of great improvement; and, indeed, the accuracy of the census depends very much upon their completeness.

We give below the number of "church accommodations" of each denomination in 1850, for the benefit of those who may suppose that they afford some clue to the number of church members of each sect:

Baptist.....	3,247,029	Moravian.....	109,237
Christian.....	300,005	Orthodox Congregational.....	3,100
Congregational.....	801,835	Presbyterian.....	2,079,690
Dutch Reformed.....	180,636	Roman Catholic.....	667,823
Episcopal.....	643,596	Swedenborgian.....	5,170
Free.....	114,760	Tunker.....	32,325
Friends.....	296,323	Union.....	202,624
German Reformed.....	158,922	Unitarian.....	136,417
Jewish.....	15,175	Universalist.....	214,115
Lutheran.....	534,250	Minor sects.....	132,802
Mennonite.....	29,160		
Methodist.....	4,343,579		
		Total.....	14,234,825

In the following table we give the number of clergy, physicians, lawyers, authors, editors, professors, publishers, printers, students, surgeons, chemists, teachers, and merchants, in the United States in 1850:

	Clergy'n.	Phys'ns.	Surgeons.	Lawyers.	Authors.	Prof's.
Maine.....	928	659	—	560	—	13
New-Hampshire.....	649	623	—	320	—	11
Vermont.....	619	663	5	494	1	14
Massachusetts.....	1,662	1,643	14	1,111	17	35
Rhode Island.....	193	217	—	114	—	8
Connecticut.....	705	560	5	289	4	19
New-York.....	4,290	5,066	54	4,263	26	151
New-Jersey.....	650	608	—	412	3	27
Pennsylvania.....	2,780	4,071	25	2,503	13	106
Delaware.....	70	114	—	40	—	3
Maryland.....	453	990	—	535	—	73
District of Columbia.....	94	104	7	90	3	34
Virginia.....	1,087	2,163	15	1,364	—	56
North Carolina.....	747	1,083	—	399	1	9
South Carolina.....	474	905	—	397	—	41
Georgia.....	715	1,295	15	711	1	21
Florida.....	83	135	4	131	—	—
Alabama.....	702	1,264	3	570	1	15
Mississippi.....	471	217	—	590	—	16
Louisiana.....	229	912	2	622	—	47
Texas.....	308	616	3	428	—	—
Arkansas.....	233	449	—	234	—	—
Tennessee.....	1,081	1,523	—	725	1	18
Kentucky.....	931	1,818	5	995	2	39
Ohio.....	2,440	4,263	11	2,028	4	92
Michigan.....	557	854	4	560	2	10
Indiana.....	1,063	2,170	—	924	1	25
Illinois.....	1,023	1,402	3	817	—	6
Missouri.....	814	1,351	2	687	—	18
Iowa.....	248	542	5	372	—	4
Wisconsin.....	401	851	5	471	—	10
California.....	36	626	3	191	—	21
Minnesota Territory.....	32	13	—	23	—	—
New-Mexico Territory.....	24	9	—	11	—	—
Oregon Territory.....	29	45	1	22	—	—
Utah Territory.....	3	16	—	5	—	1
Total.....	26,542	40,564	191	32,069	63	943

NUMBER OF CHILDREN ATTENDING SCHOOL.

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Professions, continued.

	Teachers.	Students.	Chemists.	Publ'rs.	Printers.	Mere's
Maine.....	588	692	1	7	258	2,065
New-Hampshire.....	291	952	4	—	211	1,081
Vermont.....	150	1,016	—	—	138	1,298
Massachusetts.....	1,052	2,623	49	51	1,229	5,328
Rhode Island.....	197	413	6	—	174	878
Connecticut.....	529	1,259	4	10	194	2,046
New-York.....	2,880	2,872	101	133	3,797	18,081
New-Jersey.....	840	972	23	7	345	2,615
Pennsylvania.....	3,508	3,153	200	79	3,000	13,116
Delaware.....	139	366	1	—	44	448
Maryland.....	798	904	16	10	384	3,429
District of Columbia.....	66	166	—	—	270	291
Virginia.....	1,785	3,125	2	—	318	4,621
North Carolina.....	1,189	2,095	—	—	138	1,913
South Carolina.....	739	1,989	9	1	141	1,661
Georgia.....	1,313	2,265	2	1	190	2,424
Florida.....	112	125	1	—	37	348
Alabama.....	1,100	2,269	2	—	174	2,468
Mississippi.....	909	2,287	—	2	147	1,508
Louisiana.....	791	598	4	2	317	3,958
Texas.....	418	347	1	4	119	985
Arkansas.....	329	307	—	—	64	567
Tennessee.....	1,411	1,932	—	1	150	2,372
Kentucky.....	1,664	2,012	1	3	265	3,192
Ohio.....	2,756	3,659	24	23	1,263	8,012
Michigan.....	231	433	1	5	255	1,580
Indiana.....	1,313	1,117	2	4	374	2,578
Illinois.....	842	703	3	12	213	2,558
Missouri.....	1,166	1,134	5	—	137	2,668
Iowa.....	223	68	1	—	97	835
Wisconsin.....	230	289	1	6	269	1,231
California.....	21	2	1	1	55	3,264
Minnesota Territory.....	10	—	—	—	11	67
New-Mexico Territory.....	8	5	—	—	6	124
Oregon Territory.....	21	1	—	—	11	164
Utah Territory.....	23	—	—	—	5	22
Total.....	29,587	42,149	465	353	14,740	100,792

The above table we have compiled from the census tables, giving all the professions and occupations in the United States in 1850.

The following table shows the number of children, in 1850, attend in school:

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	WHITES.		FREE COLORED.		Native.	Foreign.	Aggre- gate.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Maine.....	97,443	88,498	144	137	183,051	3,171	186,222
New-Hampshire.....	45,764	42,384	41	32	86,998	1,223	88,221
Vermont.....	47,997	44,155	58	32	89,746	3,498	92,244
Massachusetts.....	112,210	108,571	726	713	211,293	10,927	222,220
Rhode Island.....	14,782	13,577	304	247	27,712	1,198	28,910
Connecticut.....	42,457	39,976	689	575	81,221	7,476	88,697
New-York.....	356,692	331,372	2,840	2,607	644,087	49,234	693,321
New-Jersey.....	48,065	41,210	1,843	1,063	88,592	2,709	91,661
Pennsylvania.....	263,451	234,660	3,885	3,114	488,823	15,787	504,610
Delaware.....	7,632	6,584	92	93	14,077	326	14,403
Maryland.....	32,214	28,233	886	730	60,386	1,677	62,063
Dis. of Columbia.....	3,137	2,966	232	235	6,485	65	6,570
Virginia.....	59,264	50,507	37	27	109,564	211	109,775
North Carolina.....	54,727	45,864	113	104	100,258	550	100,808
South Carolina.....	21,738	18,555	54	26	40,073	300	40,373
Georgia.....	42,365	34,650	1	—	76,915	101	77,016
Florida.....	2,545	2,301	29	37	4,704	108	4,812
Alabama.....	34,125	28,653	33	33	62,758	108	62,846
Mississippi.....	26,092	22,801	—	—	48,751	52	48,803
Louisiana.....	16,903	15,935	629	590	30,795	3,292	34,087
Texas.....	10,570	8,799	11	9	18,788	661	19,389
Arkansas.....	12,918	10,432	6	5	23,343	18	23,361
Tennessee.....	78,943	67,187	40	39	140,033	167	140,200
Kentucky.....	69,783	61,134	128	160	129,955	1,250	131,205
Missouri.....	51,146	44,699	23	17	92,031	3,254	95,285
Illinois.....	97,245	84,724	162	161	173,403	8,889	182,292
Indiana.....	119,490	100,538	484	443	219,227	2,734	220,961

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States, &c.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Native.	Foreign.	Aggr.
Ohio.....	270,254	242,024	1,331	1,210	498,537	16,228	514,809
Michigan.....	55,546	50,308	106	101	100,851	5,110	105,961
Wisconsin.....	29,096	27,258	32	35	45,508	10,913	56,421
Iowa.....	18,677	16,779	12	5	34,383	1,090	35,473
California.....	800	192	1	—	976	17	993
Minnesota Ter.....	105	103	—	2	209	7	209
New-Mexico Ter.....	361	105	—	—	464	2	466
Oregon Ter.....	1,016	859	2	—	1,853	25	1,877
Utah Ter.....	1,113	922	—	—	1,969	66	2,035
Total.....	2,146,142	1,916,614	13,864	12,507	3,942,081	147,426	4,089,507

The number of libraries in the United States, in 1850, other than private, was as follows:

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	PUBLIC.		SCHOOL.		SUNDAY SCHOOL.	
	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Maine.....	77	51,439	11	2,225	131	26,088
New-Hampshire.....	47	42,017	3	1,300	70	20,117
Vermont.....	30	21,061	16	9,700	38	10,020
Massachusetts.....	177	257,737	792	104,645	433	165,476
Rhode Island.....	26	42,007	12	5,814	50	23,765
Connecticut.....	42	38,609	4	5,039	107	38,445
New-York.....	43	197,229	10,802	1,388,729	137	33,294
New-Jersey.....	77	43,903	10	4,080	35	8,564
Pennsylvania.....	90	184,666	30	17,161	226	58,071
Delaware.....	4	10,250	—	—	12	2,700
Maryland.....	17	54,750	8	6,335	64	28,315
District of Columbia.....	7	66,100	—	—	—	—
Virginia.....	21	32,595	6	2,706	11	1,975
North Carolina.....	4	2,500	1	1,500	19	2,352
South Carolina.....	16	73,758	3	2,750	—	—
Georgia.....	3	6,500	11	1,800	15	1,988
Florida.....	1	1,000	2	800	4	860
Alabama.....	4	3,848	29	3,600	15	5,775
Mississippi.....	4	7,364	103	3,650	6	730
Louisiana.....	5	9,800	2	12,000	—	—
Texas.....	3	2,100	3	430	5	1,600
Arkansas.....	1	250	—	—	2	170
Tennessee.....	6	5,373	2	5,100	18	2,498
Kentucky.....	47	40,424	—	—	18	4,617
Missouri.....	13	23,106	13	17,150	66	14,500
Illinois.....	33	35,982	29	5,875	60	12,829
Indiana.....	58	46,238	3	1,800	85	11,265
Ohio.....	65	65,703	13	9,665	248	53,910
Michigan.....	280	65,116	119	31,427	15	5,500
Wisconsin.....	9	12,040	33	2,163	39	5,017
Iowa.....	4	2,650	4	160	24	2,980
California.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota Ter.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Mexico Ter.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon Ter.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah Ter.....	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....	1,217	1,446,015	12,067	1,647,404	1,988	542,321

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	COLLEGE.		CHURCH.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Maine.....	8	39,625	9	1,692	236	121,969
New-Hampshire.....	3	19,975	6	2,450	129	65,739
Vermont.....	3	22,280	2	580	96	64,041
Massachusetts.....	18	141,400	42	14,737	1,462	684,015
Rhode Island.....	1	31,000	7	1,756	96	104,342
Connecticut.....	8	89,600	3	625	164	165,318
New-York.....	23	139,879	6	2,698	11,013	1,760,820
New-Jersey.....	2	24,000	2	338	122	80,885
Pennsylvania.....	21	77,050	26	26,452	393	363,400
Delaware.....	1	5,000	—	—	17	17,950
Maryland.....	10	23,792	5	1,850	124	125,042
District of Columbia.....	2	39,500	—	—	9	98,600
Virginia.....	14	50,856	2	330	54	88,462
North Carolina.....	5	21,593	9	1,647	38	29,592
South Carolina.....	7	30,964	—	—	28	107,473

* None returned for California and the Territories.

Libraries, continued.

	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Georgia.....	9.....	21,500.....	—.....	—.....	38.....	31,788
Florida.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	7.....	2,660
Alabama.....	5.....	7,500.....	—.....	—.....	56.....	20,023
Mississippi.....	4.....	10,003.....	—.....	—.....	117.....	21,737
Louisiana.....	3.....	5,000.....	—.....	—.....	10.....	20,800
Texas.....	1.....	100.....	—.....	—.....	12.....	4,220
Arkansas.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	3.....	450
Tennessee.....	5.....	9,925.....	—.....	—.....	34.....	22,680
Kentucky.....	11.....	33,225.....	4.....	1,200.....	89.....	79,460
Missouri.....	4.....	19,700.....	1.....	600.....	97.....	75,050
Illinois.....	4.....	7,800.....	—.....	—.....	152.....	62,480
Indiana.....	4.....	8,700.....	1.....	400.....	151.....	68,409
Ohio.....	23.....	50,573.....	4.....	975.....	352.....	180,806
Michigan.....	3.....	7,900.....	—.....	—.....	417.....	107,943
Wisconsin.....	2.....	1,800.....	—.....	—.....	72.....	21,020
Iowa.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	32.....	5,790
California*	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
Minnesota Territory.*	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
New-Mexico.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
Oregon.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
Utah.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
Total.....	213.....	942,321.....	130.....	58,350.....	15,615.....	4,636,411

The statistics regarding the newspaper and periodical literature of the country are extremely interesting. The table in relation to them, to be found on page 96, will be examined with interest, as exhibiting the character and number of newspapers published in the United States, in 1850.

The table which we insert on page 95, shows the number, and how often were issued, the newspapers and periodicals of 1850.

Those in the tri-weekly column, marked (*), were also issued semi-weekly; and those marked (*), in the semi-monthly column, were also issued monthly. There were also in Massachusetts four bi-monthly periodicals, with an annual circulation of 42,000; and three annuals, with a circulation of 45,000. Connecticut also had one bi-monthly, circulating 7,200 per annum; also, one published three times a year—circulation, 1,500. Pennsylvania had one annual, with a circulation of 2,500.

It being quite impossible to give a correct abstract of the census in a single number of the Review, we shall resume the subject in the next number, and then complete the subject.

* None returned for California and the Territories.

The following table shows the number of churches in the United States in 1850:

States and Territories.	Baptist.	Christian.	Confre- gational.	Dutch Re- formed.	Episcopal.	Free.	Friends.	German Re- formed.	Jewish.	Lutheran.	Methodist.	Mormon.	Orthodox Con- gregational.	Presbyterian.	Roman Ca- tholic.	Swedenbor- gian.	Unitarian.	Universalist.	Minor sects.	Total.			
Maine.....	396	12	180	0	25	109	7	12	2	15	60	12	945			
New-Hampshire.....	193	26	176	..	11	2	15	103	13	3	..	32	13	38	4	626		
Vermont.....	102	9	175	..	26	1	17	140	15	4	..	76	3	38	4	599		
Massachusetts.....	360	30	448	..	54	7	49	1	262	15	41	3	6	163	123	16	1,475		
Rhode Island.....	100	8	21	..	36	2	19	32	17	12	..	4	4	4	2	328		
Connecticut.....	114	4	252	..	101	1	15	185	17	12	..	4	4	4	2	734		
New-York.....	781	65	213	..	279	15	123	15	1,351	3	..	671	176	3	75	32	113	25	4,134		
New-Jersey.....	108	8	8	..	62	7	32	7	312	149	33	2	5	3	10	813	..		
Pennsylvania.....	350	21	136	25	142	269	7	406	62	..	89	775	130	3	15	61	4	21	2,506		
Delaware.....	12	31	..	9	40	26	3	180	..		
Maryland.....	45	133	6	39	22	..	3	56	65	37	900		
District of Columbia.....	6	8	..	1	3	6	6	46	..		
Virginia.....	649	16	172	108	14	9	1	50	6	1,025	6	240	17	1	6	22	..	5	2,383		
North Carolina.....	615	29	50	54	31	16	..	41	784	181	4	..	1	4	..	1,795	..		
South Carolina.....	413	72	3	4	..	3	40	454	136	14	6	1,195		
Georgia.....	679	5	50	6	4	8	795	97	6	7	1,892		
Florida.....	56	17	10	1	87	16	5	177	..		
Alabama.....	279	17	17	3	1	577	162	6	2	1,173		
Mississippi.....	385	6	13	3	454	143	9	1,016	..		
Louisiana.....	277	2	14	7	125	18	35	2	306		
Texas.....	82	5	5	1	1	176	45	12	6	341		
Arkansas.....	114	59	17	30	4	12	108	52	7	13	302		
Tennessee.....	546	119	19	34	861	33	3	3	2,014		
Kentucky.....	303	57	11	24	1	330	224	48	31	1,845		
Missouri.....	206	57	11	12	1	206	59	1	7	26	1,223	
Illinois.....	282	69	27	12	63	463	282	63	15	13	2,032	
Indiana.....	453	57	24	10	69	3	..	269	10	1,559	169	663	130	2	14	48	1	53	60	3,936	
Ohio.....	531	90	29	13	69	71	3	119	72	44	7	1	399	
Michigan.....	66	2	10	25	4	7	10	40	64	6	11	365	
Wisconsin.....	49	4	27	2	19	2	..	4	38	18	3	25	..	
Iowa.....	20	10	1	1	1	3	..	
California.....	1
Minnesota Territory.....
New-Mexico do.....	1
Oregon do.....
Utah do.....
Total.....	9,375	853	1,708	320	1,409	266	726	238	20	1,217	113	13,280	328	9	4,824	1,221	10	51	608	242	529	469	25,061

+ The Marshal returns nine churches, without giving the denominations.

* Including two churches returned simply as "Protestant."

States and Territories.	DAILY.		TRI-WEEKLY.		SEMI-WEEKLY.		WEEKLY.		SEMI-MONTHLY.		MONTHLY.		QUARTERLY.		ANNUAL.	
	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.	Number.	Number of co- pies printed annually.
Maine.....	4	964,940	5	302,000	1	2,000,124	36	2,000,124	1	15,600	30,000	1	49	4,303,064	49	4,303,064
New-Hampshire.....	3	172,150	4	351,400	1	285,500	35	2,035,152	1	15,600	13,500	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Vermont.....	22	40,492,444	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,171,114	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Massachusetts.....	5	1,768,454	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,171,114	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Rhode Island.....	5	1,768,454	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,171,114	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Connecticut.....	51	63,028,683	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,171,114	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
New-York.....	6	2,175,550	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,175,550	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
New-Jersey.....	34	50,410,758	2	78,000	1	2,116,340	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Pennsylvania.....	6	1,085,110	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Delaware.....	6	1,085,110	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Maryland.....	6	1,085,110	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
District of Columbia.....	8	6,140,198	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Virginia.....	13	4,592,350	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
North Carolina.....	5	5,070,000	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
South Carolina.....	7	1,085,110	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Georgia.....	5	1,085,110	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Florida.....	6	800,501	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Alabama.....	6	800,501	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Mississippi.....	11	9,947,140	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Louisiana.....	11	9,947,140	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Texas.....	11	9,947,140	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Arkansas.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Tennessee.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Kentucky.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Missouri.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Illinois.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Indiana.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Ohio.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Michigan.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Wisconsin.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Iowa.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
California.....	8	4,407,665	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Minnesota Territory.....	4	636,000	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
New-Mexico Territory.....	4	636,000	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Oregon Territory.....	4	636,000	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Utah Territory.....	4	636,000	5	351,400	11	2,070,016	30	2,116,340	3	61,800	29,000	1	35	3,035,152	35	3,035,152
Total.....	254	325,110,000	115	11,511,140	31	5,565,176	1,908	153,180,708	95	11,703,480	100	9,857,808	19	103,500	2,536	486,409,078

THE UNITED STATES CENSUS.

States and Territories.	Literary and Miscellaneous.			Neutral and Independent.			Political.			Religious.			Scientific.			Aggregate.		
	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.
Maine.....	15	20,459	987,316	29	93,005	2,501,680	4	4,434	438,568	1	5,300	275,000	49	63,887	4,203,004
New-Hampshire..	10	11,700	579,480	32	32,180	1,673,678	5	13,500	278,000	1	700	36,400	38	60,170	3,067,552
Vermont.....	5	5,550	208,600	37	33,980	2,025,030	3	6,416	333,632	1	1,700	86,400	35	45,936	2,567,602
Massachusetts...	80	283,027	11,794,304	9	50,700	13,591,000	68	171,387	32,998,800	24	117,650	4,403,360	14	94,303	2,033,500	209	716,969	64,880,564
Rhode Island....	6	5,400	280,800	1	9,500	762,500	12	18,075	1,093,630	4	5,400	283,300	...	1,300	7,500	19	25,975	2,786,950
Connecticut.....	10	11,200	489,000	98	34,910	3,429,438	...	5,400	283,300	...	1,300	7,500	46	53,116	4,267,993
New-York.....	101	595,908	18,449,010	15	127,370	37,317,010	263	399,755	45,463,015	37	507,246	12,438,452	12	59,500	1,715,000	488	1,622,770	115,385,473
New-Jersey.....	6	4,010	181,640	1	300	93,900	44	40,144	37,898,960	88	198,018	6,588,136	1	1,500	75,000	51	44,454	4,098,678
Pennsylvania....	71	445,364	18,515,028	12	70,396	21,908,548	108	297,940	37,898,960	...	13,950	609,400	2	7,000	81,000	310	983,218	84,898,672
Delaware.....	...	900	46,800	8	6,600	374,400	...	13,950	609,400	2	7,000	81,000	10	7,500	431,200
Maryland.....	20	71,000	14,654,000	1	700	8,400	39	31,637	4,190,924	6	13,950	609,400	2	7,000	81,000	68	124,387	19,612,784
Dist. of Columbia..	2	1,575	81,000	1	350	54,600	15	99,437	10,698,736	0	95,356	1,001,112	1	2,000	34,000	18	101,302	11,127,236
Virginia.....	10	5,690	247,880	5	4,300	1,251,900	62	51,988	6,698,176	0	95,356	1,001,112	1	2,000	34,000	87	89,134	9,222,008
North Carolina...	8	5,675	266,300	3	875	113,750	35	94,564	4,457,664	6	5,795	182,050	...	2,000	24,500	51	36,539	2,620,564
South Carolina...	10	12,700	474,800	5	8,300	2,140,400	24	28,113	4,210,930	6	4,600	195,000	2	2,000	24,500	46	55,715	7,145,980
Georgia.....	18	29,638	1,431,976	6	3,046	747,340	20	20,900	1,401,350	3	2,950	117,000	4	9,500	181,000	51	67,484	4,670,866
Florida.....	11	5,100	265,500	1	1,000	313,000	45	94,336	1,889,169	2	3,450	158,400	1	711	36,973	10	5,750	319,800
Alabama.....	10	4,400	233,480	40	26,380	1,510,024	1	1,000	52,000	1	300	15,600	60	34,597	2,662,741
Mississippi.....	13	22,025	657,300	6	12,000	3,335,100	34	45,522	8,356,224	1	1,000	52,000	1	300	15,600	53	80,847	1,732,504
Louisiana.....	17	6,737	350,324	1	1,400	148,400	14	8,350	660,400	2	2,650	137,800	34	19,137	1,266,924
Texas.....	3	3,300	171,600	6	3,950	205,400	...	2,650	137,800	50	17,350	377,000
Arkansas.....	5	10,350	506,300	2	1,610	503,030	36	33,147	5,138,580	7	22,770	1,092,040	62	84,567	6,946,730
Tennessee.....	12	14,900	650,800	3	800	250,400	43	48,340	5,845,888	5	12,525	499,450	1	585	6,500	61	70,480	6,562,898
Kentucky.....	17	19,400	608,800	48	48,340	5,845,888	5	12,525	499,450	1	585	6,500	61	70,480	6,562,898
Missouri.....	22	17,725	721,700	1	1,300	403,770	73	47,111	3,364,102	8	12,097	499,044	3	6,400	93,600	107	68,353	4,122,876
Illinois.....	21	12,432	421,504	64	57,000	3,560,336	2	2,000	100,000	107	68,353	4,122,876
Indiana.....	21	12,432	421,504	64	57,000	3,560,336	2	2,000	100,000	107	68,353	4,122,876
Ohio.....	37	111,700	3,565,880	6	13,465	4,220,805	102	189,304	18,465,293	321	90,130	334,240	5	10,400	187,900	961	418,100	30,473,767
Michigan.....	13	13,625	456,500	1	200	26,000	30	28,793	2,550,536	3	5,000	134,400	1	4,500	74,000	58	59,718	2,947,756
Wisconsin.....	3	2,500	130,000	42	39,336	9,517,487	...	5,000	134,400	1	4,500	74,000	46	33,738	2,645,487
Iowa.....	3	2,600	135,300	4	2,000	696,000	25	20,150	1,581,600	1	650	29	23,000	1,519,800
California.....	3	600	35,800	7	4,000	701,200
Minnesota Terri..	2	624	35,445	1	510	26,520	2	900	58,500
New-Mexico Terri..	1	2	1,134	58,908
Oregon Territory...
Utah Territory....
Total.....	268	1,602,403	71,577,576	83	303,722	88,023,053	1,030	1,907,794	231,544,133	191	1,071,457	32,645,461	53	207,041	4,503,932	2,590	5,183,017	426,498,978

* Including one paper, character not defined—400 circulation, and 125,000 printed annually.

Art. XI.—AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURAL FAIRS—COMPETITION OF INDIA IN THE COTTON PRODUCTION—
TEXAS COTTON—GUANO, &c.

AT no previous period, in the South, has there ever been exhibited so much excitement on the subject of Agriculture, as at the present moment. A great agricultural fair is now being held in Augusta, Georgia, which, from all accounts, must present the most interesting exhibitions of southern agricultural products that have ever been witnessed. Another is now in progress in Baltimore, which is worthy of a visit from every one engaged in agricultural pursuits, or who is any way in the study of the agricultural products of our country. Besides being largely attended by citizens, far and near, it has been honored with the presence of the President of the United States and other distinguished persons. Another agricultural fair, we understand, is soon to be held at Richmond.

Much has been said, of late years, both by the English and the Americans, of the progress of cotton-raising in India, and of the probable effect of its culture there upon American cotton. The English have incessantly advanced the opinion that England could become entirely independent of America, in respect to cotton, by giving its culture in India proper encouragement. This has long been a fond idea with them, and one which they have ardently cherished and supported by every fact that they could bring to bear upon it, and by every argument that they could invent. But all their schemes, efforts, experiments, and predictions have failed, and they now begin to abandon the idea as stale and unprofitable. The *London Times*, of the 30th of September last, takes the lead in the recantation, in an article headed, "The Cotton Crops of America and India," which we presume will be interesting to our readers. It is, of course, interlarded with the usual *quantum* of twaddle about negro slavery and abolitionism, as all the English articles are; but as this will only serve to amuse our readers, we give it entire. It says nothing, of course, about the factory slaves of "happy England," and of the practical slavery that prevails so largely, in fact, in many parts of India, the North American review to the contrary, notwithstanding. Here it is:—

THE COTTON CROPS OF AMERICA AND INDIA.

The letter of our correspondent at New-York will be read with interest, as describing some important changes, contemplated or in progress, from a point of view not common in this country. The Americans are pre-eminently a calculating people, and their calculations, though occasionally a little too confident and keen, may nevertheless be useful to us of this sleepy

and comfortable Old World. We have dreamt so long about projected Indian railways, and improvable Indian cultivation, and possible Indian cotton crops, and ports and harbors in the same prospective category, that we have come to regard the whole affair as Alanschar's dream—a fabric that a touch may destroy—and which will do nobody any good, in our time at least. Not so the Yankees. As soon as they see us fairly at it, and hear that the sacred turf of Hindoostan has actually been moved for a railway, and insulted by a profane locomotive, they set to work speculating on the consequences, particularly to themselves. They see, looming across the world, vast mountains of cotton wool, destined to feed the British loom, and clothe the world, with fabulous cheapness. Looking at home, they see, as a natural consequence, the cotton cultivation of the Southern States—perhaps the most rapid growth in the history of trade—reduced to sudden bankruptcy, and passing away even more quickly than it sprang into being. The train of consequences does not stop here. The profit of cotton cultivation has ever been the chief element in the value of the negro, and when the former falls below zero, the latter will be *nil*. Thus this dark incubus, which has always rested over the soil and prospects of the Union, which has puzzled statesmen and occupied philanthropists, and which seems so obstinate that the mere cost of abolition, should it ever be effected, is estimated at £300,000,000, but of which the cost is the very least difficulty, disappears like a summer cloud. We turn our eyes for a moment, and it is gone. It expires from simple exhaustion. Solid as it seems, it is but a bubble, blown up by a speculation which, meeting with an unexpected rival, falls below paying point, and leaves the “domestic institution” as valueless as the decayed butler of a reduced gentleman. Thus inscrutable Providence performs with a touch the work on which we had been lavishing our interest for ages. While the placid Hindoo picks the cotton, cleans the fleecy crop, and then with wondering obedience feeds the fire of the locomotive, waves the flag, or turns the points, he is unwittingly knocking the fetters off three million children of Ham, on the other side of the world. He underbids the negro's toil, for the latter is doubly chargeable, for coercion as well as for maintenance. By the same unexpected interposition, the great stumbling block to the peace of the Union is removed, and the Northern and Southern States will forget their feuds. Such is the prospect of which we are allowed one happy glimpse in the letter of our American correspondent; and we cannot but add that, if this could be effected, we on our side of the water would be spared a prodigious deal of philanthropy of the most unctious and most surfeiting description. We should be spared it very soon, for, if Brother Jonathan had not a slave of his own, he would soon lend a hand to see that nobody else had one.

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But it may somewhat assuage the soreness on this subject, if any soreness exists in the mind of any sensible American, to reflect that the Englishman has no more pecuniary interest in the prosperity of the Hindoo than in that of the American cotton-grower and slave owner. Fortunately, or unfortunately, as it may be regarded in different aspects, British and American commerce are all but one thing. We are all debtor and creditor together, with one circulation of paper amongst us, borrowing and lending, and dependent, more than most of us are aware, on the maintenance of the general credit, which, in its turn, depends on the aggregate wealth of the trading community in all countries. Credit is the platonic soul of the mercantile world, and, like that soul, subject to sad hindrances, chains, and fluctuations. So far as concerns mere hard cash, we have even a more beneficial interest in the negro than in the Hindoo. We have all the benefits of his industry and of his custom, of his wife's love of finery, and every other want which close contact with civilization has not failed to impart. We have the bene-

fit of his master's more developed and costly tastes. Should our customers, in their collective capacity, wish to annex a neighboring territory, to avenge an imaginary insult, or to give employment to a few soldiers out of work, they pay the bill themselves, and don't ask a contribution out of our taxes. What, of all this, can be said of the Hindoo, of his simple wants, of the government under which he lives, and the wars with which the number of his fellow-subjects is increased? No. As a question of pounds, shillings, and pence, the scale is decidedly in favor of American *versus* Indian cotton. On the question of philanthropy, of national honor, and of national pride, there can be only one opinion, and that is the opinion of all educated Englishmen. We are bound to raise India somewhat nearer our own level, and to mark our dominion with other signs than barracks on the face of the country, and other results on the population than the uniform of its soldiery. Our obligations to the United States are those of men to their equals; to the Hindoo they are of a more parental character. Ere the wheel of fortune turns, ere the stream of conquest ebbs, and the word is given that it is too late, we must turn to the noblest account a dominion which has ever been the highest object of military ambition, and which now renders us the envy of all nations. In this account we rejoice to think that the Americans anticipate much from our incipient Indian railways.

Since our last number of the *Review*, we have received additional information regarding the state of the present cotton crop. A Texas planter, who has had an opportunity of seeing much of the present crop throughout the South, writes to the editors of the *Galveston News* as follows:—

"I have travelled through all the Southern States except Florida. I live on the Brazos River in Texas. From Huntsville to Red River the cotton crop is very poor. In many sections the weed is high and looks fine, but the bolls or forms are scarce. Farmers tell me the heavy rains caused it to shed. One-half of a crop is as much as will be made along the road I travelled through Eastern Texas. From Grand Ecore, on the Red River, fifteen miles below Alexandria, the crop is worse than ever before grew there. So say the planters. I have known that country for twenty years. The growth of the weed is luxuriant, but there are very few bolls. In the Tensas Valley—the best cotton land in the world except the Brazos—there is the same complaint. Too much rain has caused the weed to be rank, and the bolls few and far between. The same is the case in the Rodney Hills. All through Hinks and adjoining counties the crop is also very poor. Through the eastern counties of Mississippi, the cotton will not average more than 18 to 24 inches in height. The same is the case in Green county, Alabama, only worse. There is not a crop of cotton from Gainesville to Greensborough, that will make 500 pounds per acre. I do not believe the crop all through Green, Perry, etc., to the State line of Georgia, will average more than 200 pounds to the acre. In Georgia and South Carolina the cotton is not over from 10 to 24 inches high, as far as I have seen. If the States through which I have travelled do not average more than present appearances indicate, or than the people generally believe, the falling off in this year's crop cannot be less than 500,000 bales. In the western portion of Texas the crop is good, and I have not seen a good crop anywhere else."

As everything appertaining to guano is interesting to the agricultural world, we lay before our readers the following, regarding the guano as it exists on the guano islands, (Chincha Isles,) the

mode of loading ships with it, &c., as communicated to the *Providence Journal* by Captain Congdon:—

Vessels all load at the lee side of the island. At this time the guano has been removed from the edge of the island in places, say one thousand feet. Rails are laid, and cars used to bring it to the edge of the rocks and dump it into large bins or shutes made of long poles interwoven with ropes and chains to support them, wide at the upper ends and narrow at the lower. These hold from one hundred to five hundred tons. At the lower end are gates or scuttles, and from these gates are canvass bags of about two feet in diameter, leading to the ships and boats below. The ships are hauled close to the rocks, and moored off and on. The hose are led at once into the hatch, the gates above are hoisted, and you can imagine the force with which it comes down through this hose of one hundred feet. A thousand ton ship can be loaded in forty-eight hours. Smaller bins are used by the boats, which all prefer, as we have much less dust. A ship under the spout or hose is completely enveloped in a cloud of dust, making it almost impossible to exist on board. The guano is trimmed away in the hold by natives, with oakum tied over their mouths and noses, and veils over their eyes; this lets in the air and excludes the dust. They can only stay below from twenty to thirty minutes. They are in gangs of eight or ten, and relieve each other as above. Every part of the vessel is penetrated with this dust. It will go wherever smoke will. I can compare it to nothing but so much dry ashes. The guano abounds in hartshorn, and is said to be very healthy and beneficial in some complaints.

The vessels are all of one color from truck to water. Not a spear of grass, rush, or reed, is to be seen anywhere, no vegetable matter of any kind on the island. Where the guano is now removed is a perpendicular bank of about one hundred feet. In it are found dead birds, some even on their nests with eggs under them. I have seen several of them perfect in shape, still pure guano. Most of them crumble to dust when exposed to the air. Layers of reeds and twigs are to be found through the guano, said to be brought there from the mainland by the birds, for their nests. As we walk over the islands we find holes innumerable. These are the habitations of the birds. With daylight they go seaward for food, and return with darkness to spend the night on the islands. They are of various kinds—pelicans, penguins, many of the duck species, &c. Seals and sea-lions are seen in thousands, sporting among the rocks and ships, and basking in the sun.

Every vessel that comes here has a certain number of lay days—about ten days for every hundred tons. Most of us have to lay here our days out. At daylight dozens of boats can be seen around the spouts waiting for loads. Daily accounts are kept of each ship's days and turns; so many loads per day are allowed them—say first week, two loads per day, second week, three loads per day, third week, four loads per day. We are all supplied with boats; they hold from ten to twelve tons, and are generally ships' long boats, sold to Peruvians when they leave for home. Laborers cannot be hired here at any price; we can only work our own men.

One would imagine that it would be impossible to exist in the clouds of dust. The men are all of one color—you cannot tell a white man from a black one when at work in it. It is fun for our sailors. As a general thing I never saw a set of men more interested for their employers than they are in loading our boats. They lay in it, roll and wrestle, and at times are completely buried in it. These shutes that lead into the vessel's hold are dangerous. Cases have occurred where men have slipped in at the mouth of the hose as the guano went in or down, and were never seen again, or dead, if found at all. At times, when there is much surf on, I have seen the hose come out of the hatch, and the guano go thirty feet from the size of the vessel the bigness of the hose.

Art. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

SINCE the publication of our last number, so large an amount of matter relating to internal improvements has accumulated, that it is difficult to make a selection, or even to give the half of it in a single number. We offer what we think will be of the most general interest.

The *Louisville and Knoxville Railroad*, now projected, and likely to be soon commenced, will be about 140 miles long, and will cost \$4,000,000. It is confidently expected that most of the capital will be raised in Kentucky alone.

We learn from a late report of the *Ohio Central Railroad Company*, that the whole western division of that road is now completed, and built in so substantial a manner as to place it in the front rank of first class roads, admitting of the heaviest trains and the highest rates of speed. The cost of the western division, up to the present time, has been \$1,172,516 71—equal to \$19,873 per mile. The expenditures upon the eastern division have been \$783,983 71. The expenditures for machinery, &c., common to both divisions, have been \$263,577 50. These different sums make the aggregate expenditures \$2,219,776 90, which, deducted from \$2,839,240, the gross resources of the company, show a balance of resources on hand available towards the completion of the road, of \$619,862 34.

From a recent report of the directors of the *Ohio and Mississippi Railroad*, it appears that it is confidently expected that the road to the junction with the Illinois Central Railroad, (about sixty miles,) will be completed by the 1st of January next, and the whole line to Vincennes by the 1st of July, 1855. The amount of money already expended is \$612,604 77. There are 2,500 men at work on the line, and everything is going on prosperously.

The great *Chicago and St. Louis Railroad* is rapidly approaching its completion. The desideratum is a continuous line of railroad between Chicago and St. Louis. To supply this want is the object of the Chicago and St. Louis, or technically, the Chicago and Mississippi road, a considerable portion of which is completed, and the remainder in rapid progress. The whole length of line immediately to be constructed, is 220 miles, as at present that portion of the Rock Island and Chicago road between Chicago and Joliet, a distance of 40 miles, will be used; the whole distance between Chicago and Alton being about 260 miles. Of the lower portion of the line, 113 miles are already in operation.

It is announced this road will be entirely completed by the 1st of February next.

The entire cost of the road is estimated at \$6,000,000. The funded debt we believe would be \$3,000,000. The amount already expended in construction, including amount due in outstanding contracts, is \$5,370,309.

From the American Railroad Journal, it appears that a company has been organized for constructing a railroad to connect Fredericksburg and Gordonsville, Virginia. It will be from 40 to 50 miles.

Dr. B. L. Welford of Fredericksburg is president of the Board of Direction, and Mr. B. H. Latrobe, the well-known chief engineer of the Baltimore and Ohio Road is consulting engineer; while Mr. George McLeod has been appointed chief engineer of the work.

Under the superintendence of these gentlemen the surveys are now going forward, and it is anticipated that nearly an air line with every favorable grade may be decided upon. It is expected that this road, when completed, will considerably shorten the route from Baltimore to the South and Southwest, and therefore command the great bulk of the through travel in those directions. The anticipated cost of the road, when fully equipped, is about \$600,000, a large proportion of which is secured.

The *Louisville and Nashville Railroad*, the main stem of which extends from Louisville to Nashville, a distance of 180 miles, is making very rapid and satisfactory progress. The means of the company appear to be ample. The stock subscriptions amount to \$4,085,000.

The work of construction was commenced January, 1853. By the terms of the contract, 30 miles are to be opened by the 1st of January, 1854, and the whole line by the 1st of November, 1855. The iron for the whole line has been purchased, and is to be of American manufacture.

The progress of the *Sault Ste Marie Canal* is a matter of considerable public interest, and we are happy to be able to lay before our readers, some information on the subject. When completed, vessels will then be able to pass from Lake Superior to the Atlantic Ocean, by using the Welland Canal. The *Lake Superior Journal* says, that the work on the canal is progressing very rapidly. The force of the contractors has all been concentrated on the lock sites. About two hundred men are now at work on the upper lock, and every day shows a decided progress. The excavation, at its lower end, is within twenty-four inches of the bottom, and one week of fair weather will probably see one-third of the lock ready for laying down the founda

tion timbers, which is the last preparatory work needed before commencing the massive walls.

The bailing wheel pit is sunk to a depth of 18 feet, and is to go some where lower. The last five feet of it has been composed of solid, hard red sandstone, in layers of a foot or more in thickness, which is a sure indication that a part, if not the whole, of the lower lock bottom, will be of the same material, which will be far better than was feared might be found. The company have purchased a powerful steam tug, which is expected here the coming week with some large scows, with which the business of bringing stone from Drummond's Island will at once be commenced.

The work for carpenters and masons is just commencing, and soon there will be a large force of each class employed. The first crib of the pier at the lower end of the canal has been sunk in its place, and in a short time the company's dock will be doing a lively business. A force of about 25 men are now employed in cutting down and hewing timber for locks and piers on Sugar Island, 12 miles below this place, on some fine lands which the company located for this purpose. The company have contracted for the facestone of the locks to be procured at Malden, near Detroit, but expect to use the limestone of Drummond's Island for the backing or most bulky portion of the walls. Every part of the work is therefore now fairly commenced.

Art. XIII.—EDITORIALS, ETC.

WE have the pleasure of acknowledging the receipt of the following valuable works from Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., Publishers, Boston :—

Memoirs and Correspondence of Francis Horner, Esq., M. P. Edited by his brother, Leonard Horner, F. R. S. 2 vols. 1853.—Here is a work of sterling merit—a work that will be read by all with pleasure and profit. The account of Mr. Horner's early life and studies is intensely interesting ; and his correspondence with Jeffrey, Mackintosh, Erskine, Abercrombie, Dugald Stewart, Henry Hallam, Lord Seymour, Lord Holland, Lafayette, Earl Gray, the Duchess of Somerset, Lady Holland, Mrs. Dugald Stewart, the Hon. Mrs. W. Spencer, and a long list of other distinguished personages, renders the work peculiarly valuable. Horner was distinguished as a scholar ; and his career in the British Parliament was brilliant.

The British Poets.—Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, are now engaged in the laudable enterprise of giving to the American public a new

and improved edition of the British poets, from Spenser to Young, in separate volumes, duodecimo, each volume being accompanied with a life of the author and critical notes, by the Rev. John Mitford, and others. The work is published in the very best style, and at an incredibly cheap rate. The undertaking deserves the most liberal patronage; for, after all, a single one of these old British poets is worth a dozen of our modern poetasters. The series now publishing is nearly complete. We have before us Cowper, Collins, Prior, and Butler.

INDEX TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE. By WM. FRED. POOLE, A. M. New-York, Charles B. Norton. 1853.—This is truly a valuable work. It is a complete key to the periodical literature of the day. Writers, and all who are required to consult the principal reviews and magazines, will find this work quite indispensable.

BUSY MOMENTS OF AN IDLE WOMAN. Appleton & Co., N. Y.; Frank Taylor, Washington. 1853.—This is a work of sprightly, life-like sketches, which will doubtless please the majority of readers.

We take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of an able printed circular, from a highly respectable citizen of Aberdeen, Miss., on the subject of the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-road. We are sorry that it comes so late for an extended notice in this number of the "REVIEW." We can assure our esteemed correspondent, that, so far from having neglected the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-road, we have prepared several special notices of that great work, which, however, were crowded out of our pages by other matter that had been long on hand. Rail-roads in the United States have become so numerous, that it would be quite impossible to notice the tenth part of them in every number of the "REVIEW." Nevertheless, we have noticed slightly, in the September and November numbers, both the Mobile and Ohio, and the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-roads. We hope to be able to devote some space to the latter road in our next number.

McCORD'S REPLY TO ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

LANGSYNE, S. C., NOV. 20, 1853.

DEAR SIR—In an article in your present November number on the "Growth, Trade, and Manufacture of Cotton," I have observed a fact stated which has been decidedly disproved more than once, by reference to the record. Some years since, Mr. Abbott Lawrence, in his letter to Mr. Rives, attributes the protective feature of the tariff of 1816 to the South, or cotton-growing states, and stated that it was forced upon the North or New-England against its will and votes at the time. The fact was then contradicted by the newspapers at the South. It had been

expressly disproved, as I shall show. But the North scorned, as usual, to notice any refutation of slander or false charge against the South. And again, your article (it does not appear who is the author) gives the following as the true version of the circumstances attending the passage of that law: "Mr. Lowell, whose profound knowledge of the business and eminent abilities peculiarly fitted him to impart correct information to others, (in short, to fulfil the duties of a lobby member from New-England,) repaired to Washington in the winter of 1816; and, in confidential intercourse with some of the leading members of Congress, *he fixed their attention* on the importance, the prospects, and the dangers of the cotton manufacture. The middle states, under the lead of Pennsylvania, were strong in the manufacturing interest. The West was about equally divided. The New-England states, attached from the settlement of the country to commercial and navigating pursuits, were less disposed to embark in the new policy, which was thought adverse to some branches of foreign trade, and particularly to the trade with India, from which the supply of coarse cottons was principally derived. The southern states, and particularly *South Carolina*, then represented by several gentlemen of distinguished ability, held the balance between the rival interests. After a protracted discussion, marked by eminent ability on both sides, the *South*, under the able lead of the distinguished and lamented John C. Calhoun, gave their influence to the new measure, and the tariff of 1816 was established. This was the first legislative enactment recognizing the existence of the cotton manufacture in this country."

I do not hesitate to say that the main charge made in this statement against the South and South Carolina in particular, is untrue. That Mr. Calhoun and some others of our members voted for that measure, I admit; and Mr. Calhoun's mistake on that occasion, which he must have regretted to his death, has always been attributed by his friends in South Carolina to the fact of his having been educated in New-England. I believe it was the misfortune of his life.

In July, 1846, in an article in the Southern Quarterly, on Mr. Clay and the American System, I took occasion in refutation of Mr. Lawrence's letter to Mr. Rives, to examine the Congressional documents published a few years before that, containing all the different tariffs, with the votes of both Houses on their passage through Congress. The following is a correct statement, which I drew from the record.

"In the House of Representatives the Bill passed by 88 to 54. The cotton-growing states were at that time North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Louisiana, (Alabama, Mississippi, &c., were not yet states); of these four states, seven members voted for the Bill, eighteen against it. In the Senate, one member from South Carolina and one from Georgia were absent. But there were thirty-two votes in the Senate. From the following northern states—New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware, there were *fourteen votes for the Bill, and two against it*. If the seven votes of the cotton-growing states, then present in the Senate, had all voted against the bill, it would have made no difference, for the bill passed in the Senate twenty-five to seven. *There were but two votes in the Senate from all the Northern and New-England states against the measure*. These two votes were, to their credit be it said, those of *Jeremiah Mason*, from New-Hampshire, and *Christopher Gore*, from Massachusetts. Every Senator from

Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, voted for the measure. Including the two votes against the bill above-mentioned, there were but seven Senators, two from Maryland, one from Virginia, and two from North Carolina, that voted against the bill. Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee voted for the bill.

"Of the New-England votes in the House, there were seventeen for the bill and ten against it. If we were to class Virginia with the cotton growing states, which we might well do, it would cause the balance to be still greater in their favor; for in the House, seven of her members voted for the bill, and thirteen against it. It was much more the measure of New-England, and more decidedly a northern than a southern measure."

In the debate of 1830, on Foote's resolutions, General Hayne, in his admirable reply to Mr. Webster, says: "But, Mr. President, to be serious, what are we of the South to think of what we have heard this day? The Senator from Massachusetts tells us that the tariff is not an Eastern measure, and treats it as if the East had no interest in it. The Senator from Missouri insists it is not a Western measure, and that it has done no good to the West. The South comes in, and in the most earnest manner represents to you, that this measure, which we are told is of no value to the East or to the West, is utterly destructive to our interests; &c., and our brethren turn a deaf ear to our complaints."

After this publication and these contradictions, it does seem to me, Mr. Editor, to be carrying presumption very far, for your correspondent to lay the charge of the commencement of the system of protective tariff against the South, and South Carolina in particular, when in the same paragraph in which the charge is made, he states that the measure was due to the talents and exertions of Mr. Lowell, a Massachusetts man, who had enterprise enough to influence "certain leading members of Congress," by confidential intercourse and lobby solicitations, to do that which was injurious to all the South, while it only operated injuriously to "some branches" of New-England trade, but really to the benefit of Mr. Lowell, Mr. Slater, and other New-England and Northern capitalists, and "wealthy gentlemen in Boston." The West being also humbugged, was equally derided, and suffered with the South. The bargain with Louisiana, by which her vote was obtained in favor of protection, to raise the price of her sugar, is not yet forgotten. But from whence Mr. Lawrence obtained his evidence for the assertion made at the same time in his letter to Mr. Rives, that "the primary object on the part of these members of Congress representing the cotton-planting states, in establishing a high protective tariff, was to extend the consumption of their great staple in this country, by excluding foreign-made fabrics, and substituting a domestic article, manufactured of American cotton," I cannot imagine. I should be glad to see the evidence; for, until I do see it, I cannot believe that those gentlemen would have thus stultified themselves. As Mr. Lawrence has made the charge under his own signature, I shall deny it under mine.

Yours respectfully,

D. J. M'CORN, of South Carolina.